The Nation.

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The Week.

THE special message which President Cleveland sent to Congress on Monday has exactly the right tone. There may be differences of opinion as to details here and there, but the main proposition is so sound that it constitutes a rallying-point for all the defenders of the public credit and for all the believers in an honest dollar. This proposition is that the dollar is 25 8-10 grains of gold of standard fineness, that the Government's paper of all kinds must be redeemed in it, and the Government's debts of all kinds must be paid in it or its equivalent. This proposition, we say, is now the rallying-point for all the friends of sound money. Moreover, it is something that they cannot avoid or shirk, because business considerations will overtop politics in spite of all the partisans and the harlequins (of whom the *Tribune* is a type) who are dancing around the bonfire of the public credit. The first thing to be done is to sell gold bonds. We want gold; therefore, we ought to promise gold.

The speech of Chairman Wilson on Saturday gives some reason for believing that the revenues of the Government will soon be, if they are not now, in excess of the expenditures. His prediction, however, depends on the productivity of the income tax, no part of which need be actually paid before the 30th of June. As each person will desire to avail himself of any decision of the courts which may be made against the constitutionality of the tax, the payment will, as a general rule, be put off till the last day. There is enough time intervening to exhaust the gold reserve of the Treasury twice over, especially since the element of distrust forms so large a part of the existing trouble. How large a share this is may be seen by the fact that $30,000,000 of the gold withdrawals has been for other purposes than exportation. A drain of this kind is even more perilous than a drain for exportation, because the latter has its limits, while distrust has no limits. A failure to meet the demand for gold, whether it proceeds from one cause or another, is bankruptcy. This must be guarded against at all hazards. It is a sad comment on the situation, that even now, while the Government cannot meet its own debts promptly, and is straining every nerve to maintain specie payments, the Senate should pass a bill to lend the Government's credit to the amount of $70,000,000 to a canal in a foreign country, at a time when that credit is so greatly impaired.

Mr. Wilson's suggestion that if some means could be devised for requiring a portion of the customs dues to be paid in gold without withdrawing it from the Treasury, the present trouble would be cured, compels us to say that no such means can be found. The problem confronting the Treasury is the maintenance of gold payments. This means that the legal-tender notes shall be paid in gold on demand. Consequently, any law requiring the payment of customs duties in gold, in whole or in part, would merely put the importers to the trouble of drawing gold from the sub-treasury before paying it to the collector of customs. Moreover, is it supposed that Congress will pass a law degrading the silver dollar by not allowing it to be received for customs duties? No. In the first place, the silver-men would never consent to this. In the next place, the Government ought not to, because it has received the value of a gold dollar for every silver dollar outstanding. To turn around and repudiate its own dollars would be an act of turpitude quite inconceivable.

We have felt all along that it was a mistake not to call in McKinley to show us the way out of our troubles. It is all very well for Secretary Carlisle and Senator Sherman and the Baltimore bankers to bring forward their plans, but there is an appearance of effort about their work. What we long for is the easy mastery of genius and the creative imagination, and this McKinley always gives us. He gives it to us, we are happy to say, in the address which he made last week before a manufacturers' convention at Cincinnati. After all the strain and fretting of the financiers and Congressmen, how refreshing it is to have a perfectly clear solution of the vexed problem given us in two limpid sentences. McKinley says that all we need is "our own markets for our manufactures and agricultural products," and then, in addition, "a foreign market for our surplus products, which will not surrender our markets and which will not degrade our labor to hold our markets." This is one of those great principles which only a genius can discover, but which everybody must see to be true the moment they are enunciated. A man with a shovel in a ditch would be forced to assent to McKinley's idea as soon as it was stated to him, and would have just as clear a notion as the Ohio statesman has of the way to go to work to carry it out.

The Nicaragua Canal bill, after using up all the available time of the Senate since December 1, has passed that body at last. Doubtless its promoters themselves do not expect to see it pass the House this session. Speaker Crisp has intimated that the committee on rules will not make a special order for it, and, in default of that, there is no hope for it. What Senator Morgan and the other backers of the enterprise have been making their nine-day speeches for is mainly to give the bill prestige for the next Congress. On the other hand, its opponents in the Senate and in the press have not been as earnest and incessant in attacking it as they would have been if its enactment into law had seemed imminent. Thus there has been but languid interest in the debate so far. For our part we should regret to believe that this or any other Congress would commit our Government to the backing up of a purely business undertaking to the extent of $70,000,000.

The patriots in the Senate gave the British a brief respite on Saturday, while they turned to rend the *Evening Post* for having published a Washington despatch in which reference was made to an Hawaiian bond syndicate in the background. We printed that rumor for what it was worth, and alluded to it only as furnishing what the scientists call a good working hypothesis. The necessity of some explanation for the corybantic rage of Lodge and Frye about Hawaii is clear to every man. A slight acquaintance with great principles, such as *omne vivum ex ovo*, is enough to convince everybody of that, and we welcomed the bond story in a purely scientific spirit, thinking that it gave a better idea of the meat in the egg than any other theory we had seen. But now Lodge has robbed us of this working hypothesis, and where shall we turn? He himself admits that the phenomenon is a puzzling one. He vowed that his own motive was simply that spirit of shining patriotism and sublime self-forgetfulness in which he approaches all public questions, but confessed that he did not expect people to believe that. A wicked world, he knew, was too fond of thinking evil of our best and noblest to allow him to escape. He was willing to suffer and be strong.

Another Hawaiian mystery hard to be accounted for is the fatuity of the Republicans in solidifying Democratic sentiment against their annexation schemes. All they have accomplished for the present is to get a resolution passed in the Senate declaring for "absolute non-interference," and praising President Cleveland for following that policy in foreign affairs. All the Democratic Senators voted for that resolution, and one Republican with them. This is a triumph for the Cuckoos—who somehow always turn out to be in a majority, in spite of their being such a wretched handful day after day in

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the *Tribune* and the *Sun*—and is really a desperate blow to the annexationists. How are they going to muster, on this showing, the two-thirds vote in the next Senate, or the one after the next, requisite to pass a treaty of annexation? The real reason why Harrison's scandalous treaty of annexation failed was because it could not pass the Senate. The Republicans are now doing their best to prevent any such treaty from passing a future Senate. In trying to make exclusive party capital out of Hawaii, they are overdoing the business and making it practically certain that, even with the next President, they cannot annex the islands. As this fact sinks into the minds of the patriots, they will have no resource except to shout again, "What ho! a Briton to the rescue!"

North Carolina has now a Republican as one of her Senators at Washington for the first time in nearly twenty-two years. John Pool, the last representative of the party during the reconstruction era, retired on the 4th of March, 1873, and both seats have since then been filled by Democrats until Mr. Pritchard, a Republican, was sworn in on Thursday as the successor of the late Senator Vance, whose term ran until 1897. On the 4th of March next Mr. Pritchard will be joined by another Republican from a Southern State, Steve Elkins of West Virginia, the first member of the party from that State since Boreman's term expired twenty years ago. A quarter of a century ago the South was almost solidly Republican. Leaving the old "border States," Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, out of the account, every one of the remaining twenty-four Senators from States in which slavery had existed was a Republican, except one each from Virginia, Georgia, and Tennessee. In ten years all of these twenty-one seats were occupied by Democrats except one from Louisiana; and when Kellogg's term ended in 1883, the South became solidly Democratic in the Senate—except for the two Virginia "Readjusters"—so to remain for a dozen years.

The reappearance of a Republican from North Carolina is not a cause for unmixed rejoicing by the party. The Republicans in the Legislature of that State number only 64 of its 220 members, and Mr. Pritchard's election for the short term was part of a bargain by which the 100 Populists agreed to support him for that place if the Republicans would help choose a Populist for the long term, to succeed Mr. Ransom in March. The fusion between the two parties appears to be complete, and arrangements have already been made by the managers for a union of their forces in the Presidential election next year, the electoral ticket to be divided between them. Such an alliance must necessarily embarrass the Republicans in Congress. The Democrats have suffered terribly from their fusions with Populism in 1892, by which they helped to elect Lewelling Governor in Kansas and Waite in Colorado. The Republicans will find the gain of one Senator from the South very dear if it costs them such loss of confidence as befell the Democrats for their similar coalitions with the third party in the West.

It is quite plain that Gov. Morton is not resting comfortably under the assumption which Platt makes in his Lexow police bill that the Governor is a better Platt man than Strong is. He caused it to be made known on Wednesday week that he is not in favor of the Lexow proposal to take away from Mayor Strong and bestow upon himself the power of appointing a commission to reorganize the police force of this city. That proposal is the most impudent of Platt's recent acts, and there is no explanation for it except that the mayor is too much of a reformer to be trusted by the boss. In preferring the Governor publicly as the appointing power, Platt did not stop to ask himself how the Governor might like to be held up before the people of the State as "Platt's man." He has found out now that the Governor does not like it at all and will not tolerate it—an outcome which might have been foreseen, and which is of incalculable value to the Governor's fame.

About Judge Gaynor's mandamus declaring the holders of a public franchise bound to exercise it under all circumstances, all there is to be said is that it may be good law, but it is not common sense. No railroad franchise was ever granted or accepted under the condition that the road is to be worked come what will. Even ships' charters provide for stoppage or loss by the act of God or the public enemy. This is understood in every land carrier's contract also. Inundations would exempt him in the minds of rational men. So would unreasonable strikes. Unreasonable strikes by large bodies of men—"sympathetic strikes," say, to help other strikes in some distant place, like those of last summer—are now as much one of the risks and impediments of transportation enterprises as floods or fires or highway robbery. Any judge who lays down the law about the duties of the holders of a railroad franchise ought to put in a word for the "horse" or business sense of the community. Judge Gaynor must know very well that it would be impossible to carry on any railroad in America if it were the law that it must forfeit its charter if, even for a day, it failed to run its trains, for then the employees would have it at their mercy. How unscrupulous they can be under such circumstances is shown by the recent strike of the linemen in Brooklyn in spite of a formal written contract. Judge Gaynor's assumption that the Brooklyn roads must have all the protection they need to run their cars on schedule time because they have 7,000 soldiers, and that, therefore, their failure to run them is "unlawful" and "by its bad example tends to public disquiet if not to some disorder," seems to have been taken from the work of some humorist. If meant seriously, the attention of strategists ought to be called to it, because it shows that if you send 10,000 men after an enemy who has only 7,000, you may consider him beaten and call home your own troops. Judge Gaynor evidently considers that when mandamuses come into collision with facts, facts go to the wall.

The letter in which ex-Gov. Pattison of Pennsylvania accepts the Democratic nomination for mayor of Philadelphia is an excellent statement of the principles that should control the administration of municipal affairs. He declares his conviction that, "in order to secure an honest, intelligent, business-like management of our city government, there must be an absolute separation of municipal affairs from State and national politics," and promises that, if he is elected, "merit, and merit alone, shall be considered in making appointments, and no removals shall be made except for cause." He shows how the city has suffered from the participation of its officials and employees in local politics, and engages to "absolutely prohibit and prevent it." He points out the startling growth of extravagance, the expenditures of the city government having increased from $17,638,304 in 1887 to $32,190,000 in 1894, and promises to "promote and enforce economy in the departments." Nor are these mere words which sound well but carry no weight. Ex-Gov. Pattison has been long in public life. Always a Democrat, he has twice been elected a city official in Republican Philadelphia, and has twice served a four years' term as Governor in a Republican State. In each of these four elections he owed his success to the votes of Republicans who had confidence in the man, and he has always justified their confidence. He has the ability and the courage to make such a mayor as the city urgently needs to check the growing demoralization of its government, and it is to be hoped that there will be independence enough among the voters to give him the opportunity.

Commissioner Roosevelt has an article in the February *Atlantic* on the present status of civil-service reform, in which he puts together some of the facts showing "definite, tangible progress." With the extensions of the law made in the past two years by President Cleveland, the number of federal officials now under the protection of the law is about 50,000. The phrase under protection of law is the right one to use. Formerly the men who were supposed to be servants of the public were in reality the servants of the politicians who put them in office, and had no shield against their im-

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perious demands for personal service and pecuniary contributions. What the civil-service law has done for these officials is simply to put them in the same category with other citizens, relieving them from forced labor for bosses and levies on their salaries. For the public service, on the other hand, the law has secured the whole time and industry of the men who before had to serve two masters, the Government and the boss. Mr. Roosevelt instances the present high efficiency of the railway mail service, as the best of all possible object-lessons in regard to the successful working of the merit system. In short, civil-service reform has now become simply a business proposition, and all we need to secure its application to all branches of the public service is a widespread demand by the business men of the country that common sense shall rule in Government as well as private affairs.

The first question that one involuntarily asks on reading Pope Leo's encyclical on American affairs is: Why must a Pope be so platitudinous? Is it worth while to write out in Latin, and pay customs dues for the privilege of laying before the people of this country, such sentiments as, "Divorce scatters the seed of discord among families"; "It is important that citizens should be virtuous and upright"; "America seems destined for greater things"? The encyclical as a whole is filled with truths of that kind, which it never entered into the heart of man to question. There are some paragraphs rapping Catholic journalists over the knuckles for daring to say anything about their bishops, and addressing apostolic rebukes to those prelates who "pry into the counsels and conduct of another"; but the great body of the letter is filled with platitudes which nobody but a Pope would think of uttering with such solemn emphasis. This is one of the disadvantages of being infallible; you must say only what everybody agrees to be true. Dean Stanley had an interview with Pope Pius IX., and came away saying that the infallible man had made more blunders in a twenty-minutes' conversation than any person he had ever met. It was because Pius attempted to display an intimate knowledge of English affairs. He spoke, for example, of Wilberforce as a professor at Oxford, which saying, when reported to the Bishop of Oxford, brought from him the exclamation, "What astounding ignorance!" So that Leo has, after all, been wise to confine himself to safe generalities in treating of things American. We may doubt the necessity of earnestly telling us what we all knew before, but nothing in the encyclical will throw the least doubt on the doctrine of papal infallibility.

Mexican Jingoes—of whom there is a goodly crop—would doubless like to have a glorious war with Guatemala, but the chances appear to be that they will have to take the glory without the war. The comparative weakness of Guatemala would lead that country to do anything in reason to avert actual hostilities; and against doing anything outrageous in this boundary controversy, Mexico appears to be in honor bound by the treaty of 1882 referring to it. In case of irreconcilable disagreements between the two countries as to their dividing line, explicit covenants were entered into to refer the dispute to arbitration, the President of the United States being the chosen arbitrator. Secretary Gresham, doubtless acting under this agreement, and having, it is said, first made sure of a favorable reception of his proposal, has proffered the good offices of this country to bring about a peaceful solution of the difficulty. It is, therefore, reasonable to suppose that the war flurry will soon subside.

M. Bourgeois (ominous name!) has had to give up trying to form a cabinet; and no wonder. Men of any ability or political ambition must have got tired, by this time, of being put up as targets for a chaotic Chamber to shoot at, with the certainty of being brought down sooner or later. That Deputy who, in the assembly lately convened to elect a new President, proposed that first the French Constitution be amended so as to make it worth any man's while to be elected President, deserved a more patient hearing than he got. The present system is getting unworkable. Yet it is doubtful if any other system would help matters much. Better men could make the present bad system work, and the present men would soon break down a better system. The plague of France is the fearful decay in the character of her chosen representatives. That is the plague, also, it must be confessed, of all existing democracies. John Stuart Mill said that he entered Parliament with what he thought to be the lowest possible opinion of the average member, but quitted it with a lower opinion still. The House of Commons has grievously fallen off since his day. On the spectacles at Albany, at Trenton, at Washington, what American can look with complacency? Neither for us nor for the French or English is salvation to come through any system or lack of it. Until intelligence and honesty come to be applied to legislative business, it will continue to suffer as much as any other business would if put into the hands of ignorance and greed.

The Italians seem to be having a hard time of it in their colony of Eritrea, where they are at war with both Christians and Mohammedans, the Mahdists and the Abyssinians. On the one hand we hear of a threatened Mahdist invasion whose object is to recover Kassala by a supreme effort; on the other, we read of battles with Ras Mangascià, the chief of Tigré and son of John, the late Negus. The two fields of action can hardly be less than two hundred miles apart in a straight line, and the country between them is mountainous. No wonder that Gen. Baratieri is "in urgent need of reinforcements." Of course there is no doubt of the ultimate triumph of the Italians. They will gain glory, and very possibly, for military or other reasons, will deem it necessary to extend further the limits of their territory. Unfortunately, reinforcements, glory, and extension of territory are expensive. The money for them will have to come from a nearly bankrupt government, out of the pockets of terribly overburdened taxpayers. Eritrea is in some ways a valuable and promising possession, but it has already cost many millions, and is not likely, with the strictest economy, to pay its way for a long time to come. This may be but a drop in or rather out of the bucket of Italian finances, but before that time arrives who can say what will have happened to them and to Italy?

The Melbourne correspondent of the London *Economist* gives some interesting particulars of the new taxation which the colonies of Australia are now proposing. Victoria, for example, proposes to put a tax of 1d. for every pound sterling of the "unimproved value of land." If this land is mortgaged, then the owner and the mortgagee thereof shall be liable for the tax in proportion to their interests. In case the owner of land has been an absentee from Australasia for three years or more, the rate of taxation shall be increased 20 per cent. The income tax is divided into two portions: income from personal exertion and income the produce of property. In the first instance there is a tax of 3d. for every pound sterling for incomes over £200, the tax increasing up to 6d. for incomes over £2,200. On incomes derived from property the rate is 6d. for every pound sterling on incomes over £200, increasing up to 1s. for incomes over £2,200. It is expected that $3,000,000 additional revenue will be raised by these new taxes, and the Australian colonies must have money. The effect, however, upon the banks and mortgage companies and mortgagees in possession of land upon foreclosure, will be severe. The Australian banks, it will be remembered, under the recent plans of reorganization promised to pay their English depositors 4½ per cent on the deposits due, but not now collectible. "The tax is the last thing required," says the *Economist*, "to deprive some of the mortgage institutions of hope, for its capitalization will largely reduce the market value of land, already disastrously low." The outlook, therefore, for the financial institutions in Australia is dark, and the pessimistic prophecies of English financial papers seem about to be fulfilled; but the doctrinaires, the labor members, and the socialists seem resolved upon the new taxation as a charge upon wealth.

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PLATT'S CHALLENGE.

THERE are two explanations, diametrically opposed to each other, which are given in regard to Platt's impudent manifesto to the people of this city, issued on Saturday. One is, that he feels so sure of his absolute ownership of the Legislature that he thinks he can safely snap his fingers at reformers and all other enemies of boss politics. The other is, that the manifesto is the "bluff" of a boss who fears that his power is weakening, and who hopes to strengthen and maintain it by showing the politicians that he despises his critics. We have little doubt that the second explanation is the true one. If he felt sure of his power, he would not boast of it in public, and would not appeal, as he does, to party prejudice to help him in maintaining it. His desire is to impress Republican politicians, including members of the Legislature, with the belief that Gov. Morton and Mayor Strong are with him, and that he is fighting with them for party supremacy and the offices.

Twice in his manifesto he appeals for harmony to save the party from disaster in 1896. He declares that his opponents "consist, on the one hand, of Mugwumps and Democrats who wish to embroil the Republican party in such fraternal war as will render its success in 1896 impossible, and, on the other hand, of Republican factionists who seek to control the Republican organization and who are willing to break it down if they cannot have their way." Then again, in speaking of his plan for continuing the bi-partisan police system, he says of the Republicans who oppose it: "I want to warn these Republicans that they do not betray their party into the hands of the enemy to be slaughtered in 1896. The scheme to make the Police Board a single-headed commission, in its final fruition, is a scheme to cheat and oppress Republican voters." Now a boss confident of his power would not resort to such weak misrepresentation as this. We are not settling the election of 1896 at present, and nobody knows that better than Platt. There is no election of consequence to be held next November, and a better opportunity could not be desired for ridding the party of a boss than is presented now. Furthermore, if the Police Department be made single-headed, its head will be appointed by Mayor Strong, whose term runs till January, 1898, or more than a year after the election of 1896. How is the Police Department to be used "to cheat and oppress Republican voters" in the next Presidential election under these conditions?

The plea to spare a boss and his corrupt and debasing methods because to attack him will endanger the party in the next Presidential election, is a very old "dodge," which has been raised by every boss in distress for the last ten years or more. It is a plea, moreover, which has been the cause of all our woes as a city. It has been made the excuse for selling out the city to save the country on the tariff or some other national issue over and over again. So long as it is listened to, just so long will hope of municipal reform be deferred. To raise it now, as Platt does, is peculiarly impudent, for the city was rescued from Tammany only by putting in practice the principle that national politics had nothing whatever to do with city affairs. Platt sneers at Mugwumps and Democrats as unworthy of notice in matters of municipal legislation, yet his party owes its present power to those two forces. They, and not Platt, put Mayor Strong in office, and they put him there because he said that he would conduct municipal affairs without reference to national issues and politics in 1896 or any other year. The mayor will keep his promise—on that point we have not a particle of doubt; and in keeping it he will go a long way towards nullifying the efforts of Platt to sell out the city once more on the old basis.

What the Republican party, or the decent portion of it, which Platt treats with such boisterous contempt, ought to see is that it is bound to stand by the mayor in carrying out the pledges which were made in the last campaign. We are at the threshold of the most momentous experiment that has ever been made in this city. If we succeed in showing that the city can be governed without regard to national party issues, simply on business principles, there will be every reason to hope that we shall not lapse again to the old disgraceful methods. But if we fail—that is, yield to Platt—there will be no hope for us again for a quarter of a century. If the Republicans allow themselves to be deluded by the plea for 1896, we may as well abandon all hope of municipal reform during the present generation.

We do not believe that they will be so blind and foolish as to do this, but they must make up their minds to do something more than disagree with Platt; they must come out into the open and fight him. He has challenged them with sufficient insolence and contempt to provoke them to do so. He says as plainly as words can say it that he is the boss, and that he will give this city only such reform measures as he likes. He is hoping to convince the members of the Legislature that he is a greater power than the decent elements of the city population who combined on Mayor Strong and elected him. He is "holding up" in the Legislature all the reform bills now before it. His dummies are holding back the power-of-removal bill, the bill for the reform of the police bench, and the bill for the reform of the department of education, and they will continue to hold them back until they are frightened into advancing them. There should be no delusions entertained on this point. The Legislature, especially the Senate, is doing Platt's bidding on all these measures, and not one of them will be allowed to become law without a fight. The struggle will begin at the mass-meeting next Monday, and we are confident that it will end finally in the overthrow of Platt; for, aside from being the most odious and offensive specimen of his kind we have ever had, he is also the silliest.

"SYMPATHY" IN BROOKLYN.

IT is charged that the Brooklyn trolley companies have largely watered their stock, and are trying to earn 10 per cent. on an unduly large capital; that they work their motormen unduly long hours, and compel them to make dangerously quick time, as measures of economy, thus making the nervous wear and tear very serious; that they have refused to put fenders on their cars, in spite of the fact that they have already killed about 100 people. These grievances are partly public and partly private. The motormen are, however, those immediately affected by them. In a civilized and orderly community they ought to be met by agitation—public meetings, petitions to the mayor and the Legislature, and publication in the newspapers, and appeal to the directors of the roads. If this were the mode in which such disputes between employers and employed were ordinarily settled, sympathy would go out as freely to the men, under such conditions as prevail in Brooklyn, as it goes out to all who are "desolate and oppressed"; and it would certainly be effective.

But every wise man, under all circumstances, keeps his sympathy to himself until he finds out what use is to be made of it. You do not give your sympathy to the most miserable of human beings if you have reason to believe that it will help him to commit burglary; and we may say with confidence that sympathy with railroad employees on strike stimulates rioting, destruction of property, and in many cases murder, and ought to be withheld until order is restored. Thus far, in the history of railroads—steam, horse, and electric—we believe there has been no exception to the rule that a strike leads almost immediately to violence, that it is based on the monstrous doctrine that, once in the service of a corporation or individual, you have a right to stay there as long as you please on your own terms, and to intimidate and, if need be, maim or kill any one who tries to take your place. This has been true of every strike of which we have any knowledge. Consequently, when there is a strike of railroad employees, we all know with all but certainty what is going to happen, and if we contribute to the strike by our sympathy, we are jointly responsible for the results.

We are responsible, too, for the general idea which has permeated the labor mind, that anarchy is the proper remedy for corporate misdemeanors. If men are overworked and underpaid—anarchy; if the cars run too fast—anarchy; if many people are killed through high speed—anarchy;

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if the stock has been watered—anarchy. Why anarchy should be the proper remedy for the wrongs of motormen or switchmen is never explained. If a domestic servant, discharged by a brutal master, were to station himself on the stairway with a shot-gun, and threaten the life of anybody who came to take his place, we should witness his arrest as a dangerous ruffian without the smallest pity; but when a body of strikers fill a great city with tumult and disorder and danger to life and property, and take thousands of men away from their business to act as soldiers, we still keep "sympathizing." Our legislators may be too imbecile or corrupt to deal with this matter on its merits, but we cannot allow society to be broken up until the Legislature lays in a stock of wisdom or courage. We must have peace and order, no matter who quarrels with his boss. We cannot be continually burning down our house in order to roast a pig. We cannot allow any company and its employees to settle their disputes at the expense of the whole community. Everybody, from the mayor down, who, when this trouble in Brooklyn began, fell to "sympathizing" and temporizing, is responsible for the week of disgraceful disorder which has followed. He knew, or ought to have known, the course the thing would run unless the companies surrendered.

And why did not the companies give way? The answer to this question brings up another phase of the labor question. They did not surrender because they knew by experience that if they did, the control of their roads would pass from their hands into those of the trades unions. It has consequently become a cardinal maxim of railroad managers never to surrender to a strike, because if they do there is sure to be an end to discipline. The Reading was once foolish enough to do so, and things promptly reached such a pass that the engineers used to stop the trains in mid-route to converse on labor matters. Therefore railroad corporations endeavor to fight it out, as well as murder, arson, and public sympathy with the rioters will let them, in cases where private employers would turn the key in the door and let the strikers stew in their own grease.

The remedies proposed, such as "compulsory arbitration"—that droll phrase which is really a contradiction in terms—ignore the difficulty of getting large bodies of men to abide by the decision of the arbitrators. Indeed, this is so plain that its promoters evidently expect the arbitrators always to decide in favor of the men. In other words, the Board of Arbitration would simply be a means of coercing the corporations. Suppose in Brooklyn the board should decide that the men ought to go back to work, would they go back? Hardly. If they did not, there would be no means of compelling them. Six thousand men could not be punished by fine or imprisonment; and if they were coerced into working on terms they disliked, how would their condition differ from that of slaves? Supposing they refused to continue in the service of the companies on the terms offered them by the arbitrators, would they go off and let other men take their places? Probably not. They would, judging from experience, remain in Brooklyn, cutting wires, tearing up rails, and assaulting anybody who tried to take their places. Their quitting their places without notice might be provided against by holding back part of their wages, and making it liable to forfeiture, but they would leave just the same, and rely on getting their pay back through riot and obstruction of highways.

There are two effective remedies open to us for these troubles of railroad employees. One is the purchase of the railroads by the State or city, and working them on public account through the Platts, McLaughlins, Crokers, and Grants, and all the Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys who carry on our city and State governments. Under these gentlemen there would certainly be no strikes, but there would be plenty of "rotation." The other is the stern, implacable, unfaltering instruction of railroad labor in that first lesson of civilization, that what cannot be cured must be endured; that murder, arson, and rioting are not among the remedies allowed in America to business men who are dissatisfied with the state of their affairs. If clergymen, lecturers, philanthropists, Utopists, and ethical economists do not give up the practice of treating the employees of the great corporations as children who do not understand their own affairs, and who must be humored and cajoled, and apologized for when they get into a passion and kill people and burn houses, the trouble we have had already with this class of persons is nothing to what awaits us in future. A democratic republic like ours can succeed only on the hypothesis that we are all equals, all adults, all masters of our own lives and capable of conducting our own affairs and righting our wrongs through peaceable and orderly methods. A yearly increasing body of voting protégés, secured by coddling against the consequences of their own mistakes, follies, or imprudence, would sooner or later ruin any state based, like ours, on universal suffrage.

POLITICS AS A PROFESSION.

A PROFESSOR at one of the English universities, eminent as a writer upon politics, not long since asked a correspondent in this country a somewhat perplexing question. How is it, he said, that *normally* a professional politician lives when his party is out of power? "It is understood that he makes a trade of politics; but, assuming that he is, on the average, out of office at least half his time, I do not see how he makes it a *remunerative* trade." It always seems to me that the calculations of mere selfishness ought to make a man, if clever enough to succeed as a politician, prefer any other trade to one that, after all, offers such intermittent stipends."

It cannot be denied, we fear, that the legitimate attractions of political life are no longer felt as they formerly were. Abstractly considered, there is certainly no loftier or more honorable ambition than to guide the policy of a great nation, to frame the laws under which the complicated transactions of millions of human beings shall be conducted with order and justice, or even to administer with efficiency the affairs of a small municipality. There was a time when such ambitions were commonly entertained by generous young men in this country, and when the expressed intention to seek a public career drew forth commendation and certainly excited no surprise. Perhaps these conditions still prevail in some parts of our land; but they no longer exist in the great centres of population. The graduate of one of our older universities who should announce that he proposed to take up politics as a profession, would, if he were of high character and promise, fill the hearts of his friends with dismay; while only in case he were of inferior reputation would the general opinion be that he had chosen well.

We need not pause to inquire why this change has taken place; but its consequences are obvious. If those who should by their position and education be best qualified to govern are from any cause excluded, the government will necessarily fall into the hands of men of inferior qualifications. Many such men are undoubtedly honest and well meaning. They constitute our most substantial bulwark against intolerable misgovernment. But they are frequently warped by party spirit, and they are not able to prosecute their work in the light of experience. Her ample page has never been to them unrolled, and while they may prevent corruption, they can do little to promote progress. Such men, moreover, are generally interested in private business of an engrossing character, which prevents their giving much time to political machinations; they seldom continue long in office; and they are greatly outnumbered in our most populous and wealthy States by the "professional politicians."

Many considerations operate to make this class adopt a trade that offers only "intermittent stipends." Foremost among these we incline to place the "gaudium certaminis." In these piping times of peace there is little opportunity to gratify the military instinct, but it would be a mistake to suppose that this instinct has been extirpated. Thousands of men yield to it constantly, striking work at the risk of starvation for themselves and their families just for the pleasure of a contest. The struggles of parties, the rivalry of processions and mass-meetings, the excitement of incessantly recurring elections are a substitute for the pomp and circumstance of war. They appeal to the class from which armies are recruited, and they ap-

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peal to the motives which animate recruits. As Adam Smith pointed out, every one overvalues his prospect of success, and the raw recruit or the incipient politician attains at a stride, in his imagination, glory and rank and power.

Nor does this complete the analogy. Did the condottieri of the Middle Ages find it difficult to obtain troopers because campaigns were intermittent? Every soldier of fortune expected occasional reverses, and was used to alternations of poverty and plenty. When his pockets were full, he shared their contents with less fortunate comrades, and when misfortune befell him, he expected assistance in his turn. So with our politicians. They are generally—to do them justice—of the "hail-fellow" type, going the rounds with "the boys," affable and on good terms with every one. They are lavish with their money, which comes either from their leaders or from the spoils of office, and which they look upon much as soldiers regard their pay and their plunder. As is the case with soldiers when not actually fighting, the attractions of a common profession are greater than the repulsions of conflicting causes, and it is needless to remind our readers of the significance of "non-partisan" commissions. Our professional politicians fully understand the wisdom of making friends of the mammon of unrighteousness, and when they fall, they are not altogether cast down. Some of the leaders are sure to retain office or to have laid hold of some good thing, whereby they are enabled to take care of their followers until the return of popular favor. They are greatly assisted in this by our peculiar form of government; for if a politician lose office by the defeat of his party in a national election, he may be compensated through its victory in his State or municipality. More than one Congressman, repudiated by his own constituency, has restored his fortunes by taking up his residence in the city of New York.

Moreover, the pursuit of politics does not necessarily require the abandonment of other occupations. As we have said, the politician need have no education or social position. He may be the proprietor of a liquor-saloon and at the same time a member of the Legislature. He may keep a gambling-house and be a police-justice, or be a receiver of stolen goods as well as an alderman. His private occupation may suffer from his devotion to the public service, but such injuries are not irretrievable, and if he loses office, he can make some shift for himself. Probably he will not prosper so well in the long run as if he had devoted himself with sobriety and industry to some useful trade; but such devotion is not to his taste. *Falstaff* was a man of excellent parts, but he had no fancy for making a living by honest labor. Had he lived in our day and country, he would have infallibly taken to politics and have had great success therein.

To this must be added that the stipends of the politician, although intermittent, average well. From the floor-scrubbers and scavengers up to the police justices, if not higher, the pay is easily double what the work is worth. This constitutes a steady temptation to those who are not likely to succeed in the competition of private life, where sobriety and industry are the prime qualifications. This temptation is felt even by those who have the ability to attain distinction. Choate speaks of Webster as, shortly after his admission to the bar, "resisting the sharp temptation of a clerkship at fifteen hundred dollars a year," and it admits of no doubt that many young men seek political office because an assured support, even for a brief period, is, or seems, a matter of life and death for them. They may presently lose their offices, but in the meantime they have the salaries, and something may turn up which will give them a chance to retire. Doubtless not a few young men waste their talents in this way, and find that, having started in politics, they have lost their chance of success elsewhere. But, considering all the ups and downs of life, it is doubtful if men of the stamp of our professional politicians could do better for themselves than get support, even if intermittent, at the public expense. They would not, without changing their natures, make very desirable employees in private business, nor would they be likely to succeed in business by themselves. In fact, political positions, as government is now carried on, seem to be just the places for them, and it is hard to tell what would become of them if governments were to be reformed. Still, nations do not continue at war because their disbanded soldiers have to look out for themselves when peace is declared; and if we can reform our governments, we need not worry over the fate of the professional politicians.

THE SOUTH AND THE BLACK MAN.

Of the four new chapters added by Mr. Bryce to the third edition of his 'American Commonwealth,' none will attract more attention than those on the South since the War, and the Present and Future of the Negro. They form virtually one chapter, in which, as usual, the author skilfully combines history with exposition and forecast. Mr. Bryce's account of Reconstruction is neat and all but adequate; and if he does not directly answer the question whether the bestowal of suffrage on the freedmen was a political mistake, he leaves it to be inferred that he agrees with the eminent Southern witnesses whom he adduces, in regarding the possession of the suffrage as indispensable to the protection and independence of the blacks. This opinion, we believe, will stand. At the close of the war the Southern whites were incapable of choosing for themselves between three possible conditions for their late slaves, viz., as a portion of the community purposely "left defenceless and neglected, unimproved and unimproving," or as brought under the equal protection of the laws but disfranchised, or finally as full-fledged citizens sharing in the common government. The first condition would have been little better than slavery, while the experience of thirty years has demonstrated that equality before the law without suffrage would have been a chimera, seeing that it does not exist to-day even with the suffrage.

In a purely incidental way, Mr. Bryce brings against the system of slavery one of the most terrible indictments ever framed. The freedmen were, he says, "scarcely more fit to fend for themselves and guide their course as free citizens than when they, or their fathers, had been landed from the slave ship." In other words, slavery was in no sense a discipline in civilization, nor ever looked to any change in the brutish condition of the bondman. It could not brook any attempt to foster his intelligence, because discontent with his lot was sure to attend his enlightenment and make him at heart either a fugitive or an insurgent. What Mr. Bryce does not remark (and this is why we think his picture of Reconstruction inadequate), is the inherited dread of the elevation of the blacks which kept the whites from either undertaking it themselves or welcoming missionary assistance from the North. This dread is to-day the core of the so-called Negro Problem. It is shown not only in separate schools for the two colors, but in the steady social ostracism of white teachers of the blacks, particularly if Northerners. It is shown above all in the statutes making intermarriage a penal offence.

On the latter subject Mr. Bryce throws the weight of his humane authority into the white scale. Not in words. He expresses a wish "that lynching should be sternly repressed," and "that the State statutes or local regulations enforcing separation of blacks from whites in travelling or in places of public resort should be repealed." But he pointedly omits to recommend abolition of the laws forbidding intermarriage. The reason of this is, that he is convinced that the negro "will stay socially distinct, as an alien element, unabsorbed and unabsorbable"; and herein he finds the peculiar menace of the problem he is discussing. His prediction would, of course, be endangered by the removal of artificial barriers to "absorbability," such as Massachusetts, by the way, maintained on her statute-books into the forties. Bleaching went on under slavery at a rate and with an openness which proved that nature offered no invincible barrier to the union and mixture of the dominant and the subject race. It was no obstacle to the election of a Vice-President of the United States by a pro-slavery Senate that he had given two of his mulatto daughters in marriage to white men—the second in 1832, at which

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time the moral feelings of the people of Scott County, Ky., were reported shocked and outraged by so indecent an example for their sons. There was nothing shocking in the having mulatto daughters, much less in deeding to them not only land but slaves. Had he sold them—that is, had he doomed them as slaves to utter unchastity—there would have been no ruffled feelings in Scott County. It was the natural affection of a parent which appeared so lamentable.

It might be conceded that the laws against intermarriage add but little to the repulsion between the two races brought about by emancipation, though on this point evidence is not easy to obtain. That white lust still satisfies itself where virtue is easiest—and want of chastity is one of the charges justly laid at the door of the black woman of the South—we, for our part, cannot doubt. That the denial of genuine marriage among the lower orders is a premium on illicit intercourse universally we can as little doubt. But the weight of the statutory prohibition lies in its perpetuating the doctrine of slavery, that the colored man is, when all is said and done, less than a human being. This doctrine has not been eradicated from the white mind in the generation since the war, and it coexists with a logical toleration not only of exceptional punishments for crimes perpetrated by the blacks, but for atrocious cruelty reserved solely for them—the lynchings deplored by Mr. Bryce, in which the faggot is ever ready to be applied to the dark skin.

If the South were fully conscious of itself, it would inquire on what theory of human government and society it can be indifferent, let alone being hostile, to the elevation of that vast population which, in Mr. Bryce's words, remained, up to the eve of emancipation, "in their notions and habits much what their ancestors were in the forests of the Niger or the Congo," their masters being "three or four thousand years in advance of them in mental capacity and moral force." A like condemnation is now being visited on foreign immigrants in comparison with native Americans; and how absurd it would be, if this element could not be excluded from the country—as the black Americans cannot be extruded from it—to wish to cut them off from our schools and to keep them in the condition of pariahs. Such action would be as sagacious as to remove them from the control of the health board because their numbers would be kept down by excessive mortality—as if there were no contagion for the rest of the community. The efforts to prevent "absorption" at the South have in them the seeds of moral contagion.

The Negro Problem in the mass may be one for publicists and philosophers; in the individual it is one of Christian dealing with a fellow-man. In this way votes may be won more surely than by juggling with ballot-boxes and poll-lists, as crime may be diminished without those bloody instructions which return to plague the inventor. A philanthropic spirit must arise in the South to coöperate thankfully with that which has for seventy years been extended to it from the North. In Mr. Bryce's words, "the real change to which the friends of the South and of the negro look forward is a change in the feelings of the white people, and especially of the ruder and less educated part of them." We will add that this change will also have a beneficial effect at the North, where the strength and endurance of color prejudice (apart from intermarriage) is, in view of Republican professions and the clamor of Labor, fairly to be called disheartening.

A MINISTER *MALGRÉ LUI.*

NEW YORK, January 26, 1895.

BEFORE me are five unpublished documents, just found in Paris, which possess historical interest in connection with the strife between the United States and France near the close of the last century. They are, in chronological order, (1) an unsigned proposal, dated September 13, 1793, for a closer alliance between the two republics; (2) some "Observations" submitted by Thomas Paine to the French Government (1795); (3) a letter of Paine to the French Minister of Foreign Affairs (1797); (4) a letter of Paine to Talleyrand (1797); (5) a letter of Talleyrand to Paine (1797).

On the earlier two of these I will touch briefly. The first, though professedly a French proposal, was evidently concocted among the Americans in Paris, who had come to regard Paine as their minister, and thus brought on him the wrath of the regular minister (Morris). Besides political adventurers from America, there were in Paris, in 1793, ninety captains whose vessels lay at Bordeaux, forbidden to reload and go to sea, lest their cargoes should be captured by the British. Having vainly pleaded with Minister Morris to interfere in their behalf, the captains appealed to Paine, who introduced them to the Convention, which made them concessions. This was near the close of August, 1793. Immediately after that, Paine's clients apparently felt that he was in danger. They tell the French Government, under their French *alias*, that Americans are prepared to supply them with grain, and corsairs for their war with England, and suggest the sending of two commissioners to treat with Congress. The proposal made by Washington and Jefferson to Otto (as cited in my recent paper in the *Nation*), "reciprocal naturalization of the citizens of the two countries," free commerce between them, guarantee of Canada and Louisiana to the Americans if they desire them, and cancelling of all debts of America to France, are proposed. They suggest that "Payne," though he has too many enemies to be one of the commissioners to the United States, shall accompany them and set forth their aims in the press.

(This document probably hastened the imprisonment of Paine, which his friends wished to avert by getting him out of the country. It was no doubt in Paine's mind when he wrote to Monroe that Morris and the Committee of Public Safety were both interested in his imprisonment. "The former wished to prevent my return to America, that I should not expose his misconduct; and the latter, lest I should publish to the world the history of its wickedness.")

The second of my new documents ("Observations") was written after the negotiations of Jay were ended, but before the treaty was published, either in America, England, or France. Paine, knowing that the real purpose of Washington in the negotiation was to get England out of our frontier posts, proposes that France shall strengthen her friends in America by announcing that she will exact, as a condition of peace with England, the evacuation of those posts, and also that a condition of her peace with Spain shall be free navigation of the Mississippi. This paper was written in the house of the American minister (Monroe), and no doubt in consultation with him.

The anger of France at the ratification of the British treaty was somewhat subsiding under the influence of Monroe when he was recalled. This recall awakened extreme resentment in France, and the retiring minister was notified that the Directory would not recognize any successor. In Monroe's pamphlet, after his return to America, he said that a minister to France "should possess the confidence of this [French] government," and on this Washington commented: "If he does not mean himself here, it is not difficult to guess who the other character is marked out by this description." This "other character" was probably Paine; and in fact this ex-prisoner became, after Monroe's recall, the only American minister recognized in France for the rest of the century. There is ample evidence of his being consulted by the Directory, by ministers of foreign relations, and by Napoleon. Nor was Paine's compulsory ministry without formidable responsibility. This was especially the case on the approach of C. C. Pinckney, as successor to Monroe. Not only did the Directory resolve not to receive him, but in the strained relations between the two countries, there was danger even of personal insult, if not indeed violence, to Pinckney, which might involve the two countries in war. Under these circumstances Paine made an effort to save time for farther negotiations with America, and addressed the following note to the Minister of Foreign Relations, De la Croix, (father of the artist Delacroix). I have not the original, but its translation into French by "Derché," and this, my third new document, I give entire:

"I understand that Mr. Pinckney has reached Bordeaux, and is on his way to Paris.

"The Federal Constitution of America declares that the President shall nominate ambassadors with consent of the Senate. President Washington has nominated Mr. Pinckney during the recess of the Senate, consequently without having obtained the consent of the Senate; but he is persuaded that it will confirm the nomination when it shall assemble. The nomination is, then, not complete until the Senate confirms it. Such being the case, the French Government will itself judge whether Mr. Pinckney can be received in his character of Minister until his nomination be fully confirmed; for it is not impossible that the Senate may refuse the confirmation, and it is certain the nomination will encounter opposition in the Senate.

"Another dubious thing in the nomination is, that it was made by Mr. Washington at the moment of his retirement from the Presidency, and that he may perhaps be no longer in office when Mr. Pinckney's letters of credence are delivered. This circumstance, in connection with a nomination that has not received the Senate's approbation, throws doubt on Mr. Pinckney's letters of credence, and renders them problematic; and the French Government will judge if it can receive Mr. Pinckney otherwise than as an individual awaiting from his Government his powers to deploy the character of Minister.

"This, I incline to think, is the best way of treating this affair, because it will render Mr. Washington's crafty policy ridiculous and derisive, without

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the least affront to the American People or to Congress. If there were need to nominate a Minister in the place of Mr Monroe (which is not certainly the case), Mr. Washington should have left this task to the President who shall succeed him; but he has astutely profited by the few days remaining to him to put an affront on the French Government, and especially on Mr. Monroe. Mr. Washington cannot but know that Mr. Jefferson, should he be chosen President, would not displace Mr. Monroe. Mr. Washington has adroitly profited by his opportunity to make the appointment himself, during the closing days of his Presidency. The state of suspension in which I consider Mr. Pinckney is not of such a nature as to prevent consultations (*pourparlers*) between the French Minister and Mr Pinckney. They could discuss all sorts of subjects, and perhaps with the more freedom because their interviews would not be directly official.

"So long as Mr. Pinckney's nomination shall be in suspense in America, until it receives the Senate's confirmation, so long should it remain in suspense in France."

This note is without date, but an endorsement shows it was sent to Citizen Caille, "to verify whether Mr. Pinckney's nomination is unconstitutional, and promptly return me this Note." An entry shows that the Directory decided that it would not be "dignified" to receive Pinckney in the way proposed by Paine, and the new minister was promptly expelled from French territory. Unless Paine's constitutional point was merely meant to cause delay and prevent the angry action which occurred, he was as hazy as Washington himself was about his right to make the appointment. It is also notable that in his message of December 7, 1796, Washington does not mention the change of ministers in France, Congress being informed of it January 19, but little over six weeks before the inauguration of Adams.

The last of my new documents are letters exchanged between Paine and Talleyrand, who became Minister of Foreign Relations in the summer of 1797. It will be borne in mind that the Directory had taken up the position that, during its war with England, it would deal with American ships and cargoes precisely as America *permitted* England to deal with the same. If England was permitted to capture American ships, provisions, and seamen to be used against France, France would capture and utilize them against England. The treaty of 1778, which forbade France such captures, had been rendered injurious to her by the British treaty, which allowed United States provisions to be seized at sea, on their way to France, on stipulation of compensation. Paine did not comprehend that, under this stipulation, the seizure of American provisions at sea by England was regarded with equanimity by American shippers. On September 30, 1797, he wrote (in English) to Talleyrand:

"Citizen Minister: I promised you some observations on the state of things between France and America. I divide the case into two parts; first, with respect to some method that shall effectually put an end to *all* interruptions of the American Commerce; secondly, with respect to the captures that have been made on that Commerce.

"As to the first case (the interruption of the American Commerce by France), it has its foundation in the British Treaty, and it is the continuance of that Treaty that renders the remedy difficult. Besides, the American administration has blundered so much in the business of treaty-making that it is probable it will blunder again in making another with France. There is, however, one method left, and there is but one, that I can see, that will be effectual It is a *non-importation Convention,—That America agrees not to import from any Nation in Europe who shall interrupt her Commerce or seize any goods, wares, or merchandise whatever, and that all her ports shall be shut against the Nation that gives the offence.*

"But it would be far better if this non-importation convention were to be a general Convention of Nations acting as a Whole. It would give a better protection to Neutral Commerce than the armed neutrality could do. I would rather be a Neutral Nation under the protection of such a Convention, which costs nothing to make it, than be under the protection of a navy equal to that of Britain. France should be the patron of such a Convention and sign it It would be giving both her consent and her protection to the Rights of Neutral Nations. If England refuse to sign it she will nevertheless be obliged to respect it, or lose all her Commerce. I enclose you a plan I drew up about four months ago, when there was an expectation that Mr. Madison would come to France. It has lain by me ever since.

"The second part, that of settlement for the Captures, I will make the subject of a future correspondence. *Salut et respect.*"

The enclosure is a "Maritime Compact," of nine articles, by which the nations agree to close their ports against the ships and commerce of every country that interrupts neutral commerce, and unite to punish the offending country. The flag of this international association is to be the imitation of a Rainbow.

Talleyrand's answer (in French) is dated October 6:

"I have the honor to return you, Citizen, with very sincere thanks, your Letter to General Washington, which you have had the goodness to show me.

"I have received the letter you have taken the trouble to write me, the 9th of this month [Vendémiaire]. I need not assure you of the appreciation with which I shall receive the further suggestions you promise on the means of terminating in a durable manner the differences which naturally excite your interest as a patriot and as a Republican. Animated by such a principle, your ideas cannot fail to cast valuable light on the discussion which has been raised, and which should have for its end a reunion of the two Republics, in whose alienation the enemies of Liberty triumph."

Paine's "Maritime Compact," translated by Bonneville, was distributed among all the ministers of Europe (1800), and embodied in one of the author's "Letters to the American People" (1803). The original manuscript of this American letter is in the possession of Mr. W. F. Havemeyer.

Moncure D. Conway.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY'S OLD MASTERS.

London, January 5, 1895.

The Royal Academy has never made such rich amends for its summer show as in this year's winter exhibition. The twenty-sixth collection of Old Masters brought together in Burlington House proves one of the finest hung for many winters—so fine, indeed, that the Venetian pictures at the New Gallery suffer sadly by comparison. Moreover, the Academy has made what, for it, must be counted quite a new departure. The exhibition before now has often included masterpieces, though perhaps these have never been as many, nor selected with as much discrimination and intelligence. But the Academy has so seldom, throughout the century of its career, offered anything in the shape of novelty, that it is the new departure which first claims attention. It is of genuine importance because of the influence revealed and the promise given.

The new feature, then, is the "collection illustrating the sculptor-goldsmith's art, chiefly of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries." The custom at the winter show has long been to fill the water-color rooms with a special series, complete in itself, representing the work of a single artist whom it was thought well—for one reason or another—to honor. Thus, last year Stothard was chosen for the purpose, and the year before, Alfred Stevens. It was late in the day to pay this tribute to Stevens, who was never recognized by the Academy during his life. The choice pointed to the influence of sculptors, like Mr. Gilbert and Mr. Onslow Ford, who are in close sympathy with Stevens, and, like him, have at times devoted themselves to those minor branches of sculpture here classified as the sculptor goldsmith's art; but more particularly Mr. Gilbert. Since then, Mr. Frampton, who may also, for the sake of definition, be called decorator as well as sculptor, has been elected an Associate, and the influence has been strengthened. Certainly in no other way is it easy to explain how the Academy has come to depart so far from its traditions as to exhibit work suggestive rather of the Arts and Crafts Society, or an exhibition of decorative art. There are cases filled with examples of the jewelry designed by Italians and Spaniards, Flemings and Germans, in days when every jeweller was an artist, not a manufacturer; and most notable, in this section, is Sir J. C. Robinson's collection of rings, which includes very beautiful intaglios, cameos, and scarabs. There are old chalices and cups of gold, exquisite silver repoussé work, bronze medallions and plaques, ivories, snuff-boxes, *bonbonnières*, and, in a word, all the dainty odds and ends designed by the artist craftsmen for people who delighted in such extravagant trifles. To add to the interest, many original designs for this work have been hung in the same room, among them one or two uncommonly good pen-drawings by Dürer, and elaborate sketches by Holbein.

Now, one of the grave charges against the Academy is its indifference to all art save the painter's and the sculptor's. The treatment it accords to water-color and black-and-white is little less than a scandal. But the decorative artist (the term has been made useful by custom despite the contradiction it implies) has again and again maintained his grievance to be still more scandalous. He is not even accorded the little obscure corner granted to illustrator and etcher in the summer exhibition, nor has he ever been represented in the list of Associates and Academicians, though at least one steel (or reproductive) engraver has hitherto been supposed to satisfy the claims of all black-and-white men. Therefore, the Academy's first recognition of the applied arts seems to hold out promise of a broader and more enlightened policy for the future. The chances are it will lead to nothing; and, when all is said, the applied arts now acknowledged officially are limited to the few that appeal more directly to the sculptor. But if the Academy continues to extend its patronage to gold and silversmith and gem-engraver, can it, in reason, deny the rightful demands of the designer of wall-paper and tapestry, of stained glass and pottery? This is the question involved, and it is really of far more immediate importance than the actual objects shown. One's faith in academies, literary or artistic, may not be very great; but still, so long as there is an Academy of Arts in England, it would be as well for artists if it were to become something more than a close corporation for a small group of painters and a few sculptors and architects.

It must be confessed that, but for the question at issue, the sculptor-goldsmith's creations prove less delightful than the paintings. As usual, the Old Masters are Dutch and Flemish, Italian and Spanish, French and German, while the "deceased masters of the Bri-

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tish school," as the Catalogue always calls them, bring the collection, in point of time, down almost to our own generation. But in general arrangement and scope accustomed rules are observed more than accustomed judgment has been shown, not only in selecting, but in leaving out. The result is, that walls do not offend by the rubbish that is the chief drawback to all collections of Old Masters —is just now, as I have pointed out, to the New Gallery's show of Venetian art. This is most apparent in the British pictures. We have been spared the regulation Landseer and the irritating assortment of Mulreadys and Maclises and the like. There is hardly a canvas which is not really good in itself and characteristic of its painter. Thus, among the many Sir Joshuas are the Crewe portraits, lent by Lord Houghton, several bearing melancholy witness to the bad colors that prevailed on the artist's palette, and one or two of children suggesting how the way was prepared for the sentimental "Bubbles" and "Cherry Ripes" of to-day. The Gainsboroughs give several very lovely examples of his masterly use of blue, in defiance of all Sir Joshua's protest against that "cold color"; the "Miss Willoughby" and "Lady Eardley" being the most distinguished. And the Romneys present all the enchanting variations of Lady Hamilton's enchanting face which his name in a catalogue leads one to expect. Even the Raeburns and Lawrences are exceptionally good; and a far earlier master, but too little known, William Dobson, the pupil of Vandyck, can be studied in a portrait of a young man in armor which has much of the dignity and serenity of a fine Rembrandt.

The landscapes are not less famous. There has been hung, for instance, "The Cottage Door" of Gainsborough, the property of the Duke of Westminster, one of the most talked-about of all the landscapes which during his lifetime littered up his hall and studio, waiting for the purchasers who rarely came, even in the years when he could scarce paint portraits fast enough to meet his commissions. Constable's "Dedham Vale" and "Scene on the River Stour" are both here; and three or four excellent Turners, none more masterly than the Mortlake, showing one of the great curves the Thames makes between its low banks, and giving marvellous effects of light and atmosphere, not always to be had in this painter's more eccentric impressions.

To pass on to the foreign schools is to wonder anew at the wealth of England's royal and private galleries. More than one canvas may be of doubtful authenticity; this is inevitable so long as old pictures are prized for their age rather than their merit. Here the name of Titian may be dishonored by a portrait that the most casual observer, one would think, must swear he never painted; here Terburg may fare no better; and both can claim Velasquez as a fellow-sufferer. But there is good work enough to atone amply for all the insults offered. A really good Velasquez is included, a replica of that little Don Carlos in hunting costume, with dogs at his feet, which is one of the glories of the Prado; by comparison even Sir Joshua's children seeming but so much idle paint. A very stately portrait of Ariosto is far from bringing discredit upon poor Titian, who, at the New Gallery, is held responsible for so many an indifferent painter's indiscretions. The Primitives are kept within reasonable bounds, so that an occasional Mabuse, or follower of Holbein, is not lost in an appalling succession of "cock-eyed Madonnas." There are Janets to make one pause. And a fair array is offered of Cuyps and Jan Steens and Gabriel Metsus, with one good Terburg and a little Franz Hals to force a contrast.

But here interest centres about the Rembrandts. Not many national galleries, outside of Holland, can boast of so strong a collection—small as it is—as this one, loaned for the occasion by the Duke of Westminster from his own private gallery. Portraits of Nicholas Bergheim and his wife, and of Rembrandt himself, as a youth decked out in the studio properties he loved, have their no light value; a landscape (with figures, according to the Catalogue, put in by Teniers) is not without importance, since the landscapes he painted are known so much less well than those he etched; but the wonder of these canvases fades before the "Gentleman with a Hawk," and the "Lady with a Fan," in whom one cannot but recognize the Saskia of so many pictures. In both portraits all Rembrandt's finest qualities are disclosed: his vigorous drawing in the figures, his subtle modelling in the faces, his dignity of composition in the absolutely simple pose, and the rare charm of color, the rich, warm glow with which he filled his finest pictures, and which not even Titian has surpassed. These two portraits alone would suffice to make the show noteworthy. N. N.

PARIS OF THE REVOLUTION.

PARIS, January 17, 1895.

M. G. LENOTRE seems peculiarly drawn towards the most painful details and incidents of the Terror of 1793. He had already published a book on 'The Guillotine and the Executors of Criminal Judgments in Paris and in the Departments, during the Revolution, from Documents in the State Archives'—a curious and interesting volume, but of a decidedly painful and almost abhorrent nature. He gives us now another volume, which is more readable, 'Paris Révolutionnaire.' There is a very large *Literatur* on Paris, to use a German expression. Some collectors feel a sort of passion for all that concerns Paris, its monuments, its streets, its development. The engraved pictures and plans of old Paris always fetch a good price at the public sales. All amateurs of engraving know how dearly they must pay for the etchings of Méryon, who bequeathed a sort of religion for the *Cité*, the Seine, its bridges, its quays, their many-storied and narrow houses, its boats. Drumont, who has become so famous as the writer of 'France Juive' and editor of the *Libre Parole*, wrote, when he was young and unknown and had not won popularity, a very agreeable and sometimes almost poetical book on 'Vieux Paris.'

I could not help being drawn towards 'Paris Révolutionnaire,' as I must confess having myself an old affection for the "Grande Ville," and especially for the oldest parts of it, in which every stone has its history. M. Lenotre was led to write this new work by M. Sardou, who knows Paris better than anybody, and who is a passionate collector of whatever concerns its history. It might almost be said that Sardou writes his dramas for the pleasure of reconstituting some part of the past. "Thermidor" has for its background the Paris of the Revolution; and "Madame Sans-Gêne," the Paris of the Empire.

"Chronology," writes M. Lenotre, "and geography are the two eyes of history; if this be so, the history of our Revolution is one-eyed, for its topography remains to be made. Not only the merely curious are all but ignorant where were the Jacobins, the Feuillants, the Force, the Manége, the Revolutionary tribunal; but even the erudite (and I do not except those who have made a special study of the Revolution) could not tell us exactly what were in 1793 the Tuileries, the Abbaye, the Conciergerie, the Hôtel de Ville. . . . How often, in reading the pages of Michelet and Lamartine, inspired by the dark days of the Terror, have I tried mentally to reconstruct the room in which the Convention sat, the prisons, the Committees."

M. Lenotre begins with Robespierre: "A tout seigneur, tout honneur." We see first the dark and narrow street of Arras which Robespierre left to take the diligence that was to bring him to Paris, after he had been elected a member of the States-General. He borrowed ten louis to make the journey, and had nothing but a trunk. (M. Lenotre gives us a list of the clothes which were in it, but does not tell where he procured it.) This Deputy of the Tiers had a coat of black cloth, and he bought another, of black embossed velvet, at the Temple in Paris. As a Deputy he received eighteen livres a day; he kept a third for himself, sent a third to his sister Charlotte at Arras, and the remaining third to a person who idolized him, if we may believe Pierre Villiers, who afterwards became his secretary and who wrote the 'Souvenirs d'un Déporté.' Robespierre long remained obscure; he began to be known only after he had left the little hôtel in the Rue de Saintonge, and taken rooms in the house of a man called Duplay, who offered him his hospitality. Duplay was an upholsterer who lived in the Rue St.-Honoré; he had known Robespierre at the club of the Jacobins; he admired him, he was proud to have a Deputy in his house and to receive his friends there. Duplay's house still exists, but several stories were added to it in 1816, without, however, altering the principal dispositions of the apartments of Duplay and of Robespierre.

Robespierre lived there for three years, with Duplay, his wife and his family, which consisted of four girls and a boy. Éléonore, one of the girls, entertained for Robespierre a sentiment in which admiration was perhaps mingled with love. Some said, when he died, that she was engaged to him; others, that she had been his mistress. Her young friends, at Regnault's atelier, where she took lessons in drawing, called her, in derision, Madame Robespierre. Her dream was not of long duration. Elizabeth, a sister of Éléonore, was married to Philippe Lebas, a Terrorist Deputy, aged twenty-eight, on the 26th of August, 1793. The room in which the sisters slept is the least altered of all. The doors, the Louis-XVI. mirrors, the panels, even the floor, remain intact. We can imagine, with M. Lenotre, the conversations which took place in the drawing-room of the admiring Duplays, between Robespierre, Camille Desmoulins, Saint-Just, Lebas, Collot-d'Herbois. We can see, on the morning of the famous festival of the Supreme Being, Mme. Duplay preparing the neat clothes of the Dictator—his blue coat, his nankin breeches, the tricolor silk sash, the little hat with the tricolor cockade.

What became of the Duplays after the execution of Robespierre? Mme. Duplay disappeared; she either was murdered, or committed suicide in the prison of Sainte-Pélagie. Lebas's widow changed her name, and for a while worked as a washwoman in the boats of the Seine. Lamartine saw her in her old age, and has described her in his 'Histoire des Girondins.' Éléonore survived the Revolution forty years, living in great seclusion; she considered herself a widow, and wore mourning all her life. Curiously enough, she received a pension from the Thermidorians; this pension,

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which was 6,000 francs at first, and was afterwards reduced to 1,500, was paid by all the successive governments till 1834. Duplay himself was compromised in the conspiracy of Babeuf, but he was released and remained quiet till his death, which took place in 1820.

M. Lenotre has had the curiosity to look for the Hôtel de la Providence, the little inn where Charlotte Corday took a room when she arrived from Caen with the intention of killing the monster Marat. This house is still in existence, in one of the dingiest streets in the neighborhood of the Place des Victoires. It is no longer an inn, but the adjoining house has become one under the name of Hôtel de Francfort. The legend has followed the business, and there is now in this Hôtel de Francfort a room which is shown as one occupied by Charlotte Corday. Charlotte left the Caen diligence at twelve o'clock and hired a porter who brought her trunk to the Hôtel de la Providence. She was tired from her long journey and remained in her room; the next day she tried in vain to see Marat at the Convention. She knew nothing of his habits, but she soon found out that her only chance to see him was to go to his house. The next day she bought a common kitchen knife, took a cab, and had herself conducted to the house where Marat lived—a sort of bourgeois hôtel, with a porte-cochère, a little inner court, an open staircase. The plan given by M. Lenotre shows very clearly the disposition of Marat's apartment. He lived there with his mistress, Simonne Evrard, her sister Catherine Evrard, and his own sister, Albertine Marat. Marat, as is well known, received Charlotte Corday in his bath. While they were talking, Simonne entered a moment, with a potion which she was preparing for him. She took two dishes, in which was prepared the meat for the evening repast, and left the room. She was hardly out when she heard a great scream; she reëntered—everything was already covered with blood. Charlotte, very pale, was standing; she had placed her knife on some newspapers.

M. Lenotre does not exactly know what to say about Charlotte Corday; he cannot understand how a well-born young woman, educated in religious ideas, could execute her crime so coldly, without hesitation. He finds her almost too sublime. To a question of Fouquier de Tinville's she answered: "Oh, the monster! he takes me for an assassin." When he asked her, "Who could have inspired in you so much hatred?" she replied: "I had no need of the hatred of others. I had enough of my own." She was serene in her prison and serene on the scaffold. She was a descendant of the heroic Corneille. The only authentic portrait of her is that made during the trial by Hauer, which is now in the museum of Versailles. Her hair was blonde, her eyes blue, her skin very white. She is represented in this portrait with a white cap, and a white fichu folded on her breast; a lock of hair falls on one side over her shoulder. The features of the face are very noble and striking. A friend of mine has a portrait of her unfinished, made by our great Baudry; from what sources? I could not tell. It is difficult to imagine anything more striking. It is certainly singular that France, in her great trials, should find women representatives of her deepest and most legitimate instincts. Jeanne d'Arc is the poetical figure which will always represent the uprising of popular France against invasion, against foreign domination. Charlotte Corday will always represent the reaction of innocence and virtue against the cruel tyrants who sent every day virtuous and innocent victims to the guillotine.

There is a great variety of horrors in this volume of 'Paris Révolutionnaire.' A chapter is given to the Abbaye, where took place the massacre of the prisoners on the 2d of September, 1792. The prison, which was a part of the ancient abbey of Saint-Germain des Prés, was on that day full of soldiers who had escaped from the massacre of the Tuileries on the 10th of August, of relations of émigrés, journalists, priests, aristocrats of all ranks. One of the priests who were in the Abbaye, the Abbé de Salamon, who escaped miraculously, has left an account of what he saw on that day; his manuscript has only recently been found in Rome. He was an internuncio of the Pope; he had previously been a counsellor of the Parlement of Paris. M. Lenotre enters into minute details as to the places where the massacres occurred in the courts of the Abbaye, and he shows conclusively that the number of the victims was 270. Maillard, who, during that bloody night of September, constituted himself a judge and went through the mockery of justice, was a young man twenty-nine years old; he had played his part on all the great days of the Revolution; he became the leader of the mob at the Abbaye, and for three days multiplied his functions, judged the prisoners, ordered the summary execution of all the priests, presently (at the Carmelite prison) examined more prisoners, had many executed, and saved a few—which allowed him afterwards, in a pamphlet which he wrote for his defence, to say: "I am not a man of blood." He was familiarly called *Tape-dur*. We find him in 1793 in the police, at the head of sixty men who were hunting the suspects, keeping for himself all their assignats, imprisoned for his robberies at the Force, released, and finally dying of consumption on the 15th of April, 1794, at the age of thirty-one.

The salon of Mme. Roland has furnished a chapter to M. Lenotre. He shows us first the house where she was born on the Quai de l'Horloge, afterwards the Hôtel de Calonne et de Lionne, which was the Ministry of the Interior in 1792, when Roland was minister; the great drawing-room of the ministry, reconstituted with its admirable panels, after inedited drawings in the Cabinet des Estampes. These numerous engravings give great value and charm to the exact and minute studies of M. Lenotre; and all lovers of old Paris, all who are interested in our Revolutionary period, will find something to enjoy or to learn in a book which takes us from the old Tuileries to Danton's home in Arcis and in Paris, from the Club of the Jacobins to the Club of the Cordeliers, and which brings us in the end to the prison of Marie Antoinette and the Conciergerie. *Sunt lacrymæ rerum*, said the Latin poet; these stones of the Conciergerie have their terrible eloquence, and so have all the houses and dwellings with which M. Lenotre has made himself and makes us familiar.

Correspondence.

THE A. P. A. IN MONTANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Every sober citizen, loyal to the fundamental principles of American institutions, will find food for reflection in the following incident:

The Republicans of the Montana Legislature, having nominated in caucus Mr. Thomas H. Carter for one of the United States Senators to be elected at this session, the American Protective Association of Montana sent a lengthy protest to be read in the House of Representatives, warning all members against voting for a Romanist of any character, reciting as a threat some recent State history to show the strength of the A. P. A., and rehearsing some evidences of Papal ascendancy in this country. Among other things, it claimed a vote of over 8,000 in Montana out of a total vote of about 50,000.

But note the reception given to this surprising communication. Scarcely had the clerk read aloud the title of the document and its opening sentence, when a member jumped to his feet and vehemently moved that it be laid on the table. A dozen men rose to second the motion, which passed unanimously. Not content with this, a member then moved that it be sent back immediately as having been unread. This, too, received a dozen seconds and went through without a dissenting vote.

The Butte contingent of the A. P. A. seems to have been fired with indignation at this summary disposal of their solemn warning. A train was chartered, and at an early hour on Tuesday morning—the day set for a formal vote in both houses for United States Senators—a deputation of 100 members of the A. P. A. arrived in Helena. They immediately proceeded to "interview" with considerable emphasis certain refractory legislators, but were dumfounded at meeting with an absolute refusal to entertain their propositions. Their astonishment increased almost to stupefaction when certain hard-pressed legislators resigned their membership in the A. P. A. in order to regain independence for their votes. When the vote was taken at about eleven A. M. of that day, it was found that not a single vote had been influenced even by the personal presence and angry threats of the Butte delegation.

A Staunch Protestant.

Boulder, Montana, January 18, 1895.

HOME MARKET NOT ENOUGH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Last week in Cincinnati a convention was held at which a National Association of the Manufacturers of the United States was organized. Over 400 delegates, representing all parts of the country, were present. The ceremonies were opened by a speech from Gov. McKinley, and the politics of a large majority of those present was intensely Republican. The spirit, however, which pervaded the entire proceedings of the convention is most significant, for it is remarkable that a large group of manufacturers should meet at a time of depressed business, especially after a reduction of the tariff, and not in any way attempt to draft a resolution asking for a restoration of duties. On the contrary, these men here inaugurated a new policy—that of extended foreign trade. At last they find America is not big enough for Americans!

The basis of this movement was a fact presented by Mr. M. E. Ingalls in his speech on Wednesday last. He stated that since 1860 our population had increased about 170 per cent., while our manufacturing interest had developed 800 per cent. The proceedings of the convention were all termed "protective"; but is not this word beginning to have a new significance? The strongest expression of a high-tariff character passed by the convention is the following sort of platform embodied in its constitution:

"To the largest possible extent our home

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market should be retained and supplied by our own producers, and our foreign trade relations should be extended in every direction and manner not inconsistent therewith."

Very truly yours,

JAMES B. STANWOOD.

CINCINNATI, January 27, 1895.

INFLUENCE OF COLLEGE-BRED MEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The paragraphs in the *Nation* of December 20, 1894 (p. 465), making the fifty-three "immortals" whose names are inscribed on the drum of the dome of the new House of Representatives in Boston a text for emphasizing the influence of college-bred men, are wholesome reading, and seem to have been much commented on in college journals. They have called to my mind an investigation made some years ago to ascertain what proportion of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and of the framers of the Constitution were college-bred men. So far as I could ascertain from 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of Biography,' of the fifty-six "signers" twenty-six were college graduates, while ten more received classical training, though they did not attend college. Of the twenty-six college-bred "signers," Harvard furnished eight—Samuel Adams, John Adams, John Hancock, William Ellery, Elbridge Gerry, R. T. Paine, William Hooper, and William Williams; Yale four—Oliver Wolcott, Philip Livingston, Lewis Morris, and Lyman Hall; Princeton two—Richard Stockton and Benjamin Rush; William and Mary three—Thomas Jefferson, C. Braxton, and George Wythe; College of Philadelphia three—William Paca, Matthew Hopkinson, and James Smith; Cambridge (Eng.) three—Arthur Middleton, Thomas Lynch, and Thomas Nelson; Edinburgh—John Witherspoon. James Wilson studied at Edinburgh, St. Andrews, and Glasgow, and Charles Carroll of Carrollton at several foreign Jesuit colleges, as well as law at the Temple.

Of the sixty-one men commissioned to attend the Constitutional Convention thirty-one were college-bred, and five of the remainder had what might be called a liberal education, though they did not attend college. Of these Harvard furnished six—Rufus King, Elbridge Gerry, Francis Dana, Caleb Strong, John Pickering, and Benjamin West; Yale four—Abr. Baldwin, Jared Ingersoll, W. S. Johnson, and Wm. Livingston; Princeton nine—James Madison, Gunning Bedford, Jonathan Dayton, Oliver Ellsworth, Luther Martin, Alexander Martin, Wm. Patterson, W. C. Houston, and W. R. Davie; William and Mary five—John Blair, Edmund Randolph, George Wythe, James McClurg, and J. F. Mercer; Columbia (King's) two—Alexander Hamilton and Gouverneur Morris; College of Philadelphia two—Thomas Mifflin and Hugh Williamson; Oxford (Eng.)—Charles Cotesworth Pinckney; Glasgow—R. D. Spaight; Edinburgh, St. Andrews and Glasgow—James Wilson.

Of the thirty-nine whose names were appended to the document, seventeen were college-bred men.—Very respectfully,

CHARLES FORSTER SMITH.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS will issue at once Dr. Parkhurst's work, 'Our Fight with Tammany,' and 'A Creedless Gospel and the Gospel Creed,' by Dr. Herbert Y. Satterlee.

Prof. Skeat is engaged upon a volume supplementary to the six of his Oxford edition of Chaucer, just completed. It will contain the prose "Testament of Love," and the chief poems attributed to Chaucer and published with his genuine works in old editions. Macmillan & Co. will publish it.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in press 'The United States Internal Revenue Tax System,' with text of all laws now in force, including the income-tax law, by Chas. Wesley Eldridge; 'Half a Century with Judges and Lawyers,' by Joseph A. Willard; 'The Fast and Thanksgiving Days of New England,' an historical study by the Rev. Wm. De Loss Love, jr.; 'Louisiana Folk-Tales,' in French and in English, by Prof. Alcée Fortier; and 'Stories of the Foot-Hills,' by Mrs. Margaret C. Graham.

Since we noticed, something more than three years ago, Seyffert's 'Dictionary of Classical Antiquities' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan), the work has passed to a second and now comes to us in a third edition. It is still worthy of the praise we gave it, and the much-needed index has been supplied. We wish we could flatter ourselves that our other strictures (not profound, to be sure) had been heeded, but they have not. As Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens' was caught up for the second edition, so Monro on the Modes of Greek Music and Dörpfeld's latest views on the theatre have been availed of for the present issue. The book remains a very handsome one, with more than 450 illustrations.

Just three years ago the Rev. John Wright, D.D., of St. Paul, Minn., issued a volume of one hundred and seventy duodecimo pages, entitled 'Early Bibles of America.' In the third edition, now at hand (T. Whittaker), the work has grown to almost five hundred octavo pages. In the interval many additional facts have come to the author's knowledge, and more editions have been studied. The result is a volume largely rewritten and much augmented, containing the completest account, within single covers, of the subject in hand. The treatment is historical, biographical, and bibliographical, embracing the history of the editions, accounts of editors and printers, the distribution and present location of copies of rare editions so far as ascertainable. Thirty-three facsimiles of title-pages are given, and in the appendices are many valuable facts. For instance, the author indicates where are to be found one hundred and twenty-five copies of Eliot's Indian Bible in its various editions, and he adds a table showing the prices which some of them have fetched at auction. One hundred and thirty-one copies of the Saur Bible are located, and thirty-two Aitken Bibles. More than twenty-two pages are devoted to a list of American editions, previous to 1860, not mentioned by O'Callaghan, and more than fifty pages to a priced list of all editions arranged by years. The whole is closed with an index which seems to be very exhaustive. It scarcely need be said that the new edition of Dr. Wright's work is what the first was not, a valuable addition to a branch of bibliographical literature that is exceptionally rich in editions and in perplexing problems. Special chapters have been prepared on Mexican and Canadian Bibles, and the author has endeavored to make his work the more reliable by visiting most of the collections where noted Bibles are preserved. The work is well printed and bound.

The late Austin Phelps marked the close of his long and successful career as professor of sacred rhetoric at Andover Theological Seminary by publishing the substance of the doctrines which he had for many years been inculcating in his lectures. Of the volumes issued under these circumstances, 'English Style in Public Discourse' (1883), which we then commended to its especial public, has recently been edited as a text-book for schools and colleges by Prof. H. A. Frink, under the title of 'Rhetoric: Its Theory and Practice' (Scribners). In spite, however, of the dignified grace of Prof. Phelps's style, and the interest and value which his teachings had for young orthodox clergymen of a generation ago, it is hard to see how in its old or its new form the treatise can now be used with advantage as a general text-book. Prof. Phelps's ideas in regard to rhetoric were those common when he was at his prime, and do not differ greatly from those developed in most of the older treatises. But the rapid increase in our knowledge of English usage has changed radically many of the dogmas of thirty years ago. Teachers and students now rightly demand a simpler system of classification, a more scientific method of instruction, fewer absolute rules of prohibition, more guides for positive action. To reproduce an example—however excellent at its time and in its place—of the older, dogmatically negative rhetorical system, is scarcely to render modern education a service.

Alexandre Dumas's 'Napoleon,' translated from the French by John B. Larner (Putnams), owes its publication in English dress to the unreasoning literary fashion of the hour. The original sketch has for a long time been known in schools as a reading-text of easy French. At first written in dramatic form, it still bears much of the fire and force of description with which Dumas originally endowed it, and of which Mr. Larner's translation does not by any means wholly deprive it.

Capt. Arthur L. Wagner, instructor in the art of war at the United States Infantry and Cavalry School, already favorably known as an author of military works, has published a handsome volume on 'Organization and Tactics' (B. Westermann & Co.). An historical consideration of the several arms and of their relations to each other in actual service, as well as a careful study of the departments of supply and of medicine and surgery, gives to the work a great breadth of scope. The task has been ably performed, and, like other books by the younger generation of American soldiers, has the noteworthy merit of copious illustration from the records of our civil war as well as from the histories of recent European wars. The full treatment of American examples will make the work indispensable to the American student, and will not diminish its interest in the eyes of European readers, who will find here a mine of new and valuable matter bearing upon the practical handling of armies in the field.

Another useful piece of work has been done by Surgeon (Lt.-Col.) Alfred A. Woodhull, U. S. A., in a detailed report on the medical department of the British army, studied in comparison with our own. The Secretary of War has authorized the publication (by Buxton & Skinner Co., St. Louis), and it will thus be brought to the attention of the general public as well as of the officers of the army. It deals in an instructive and interesting way with the qualifications and organization of the medical staff and with its work. The last includes examination of recruits, sanitary care of soldiers, of their barracks and huts, and

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their treatment in all medical cases from trivial to grave. The organization of hospitals and the hospital service, the supply of drugs, of surgical instruments, the control of the dietary of the sick, the treatment of convalescents—in short, all the multifarious administration of the medical department, is lucidly discussed.

'In the Heart of the Bitter-Root Mountains,' by "Heclawa" (A. L. A. Himmelwright), which bears the imprint of the Putnams, is noteworthy as containing probably the best map ever published of the huge nest of mountains in central Idaho, west of the main ridge which forms the divide between that State and Montana, though the scale is too small to show much detail. This region was first traversed by Lewis and Clark in 1805, and again in 1806, and we hardly heard anything more about it till 1854, when Mullan followed the Lo Lo or Northern Nez Percé trail, and made a sketchy route-map which was published in I. I. Stevens's volume of the Pacific Railroad Reports. It became somewhat better known during the Nez Percé war, when Howard and Gibbon chased Chief Joseph through Idaho. The best map we have between Lewis and Clark's (published in 1814) and this one of Mr. Himmelwright's, is a scarcely known sheet, twenty-five miles to the inch, by George Benson Nicholson, 1866, published with a pamphlet of the Northwestern University of Illinois, May 1, 1887, by Prof. Oliver Marcy, entitled "The Lou Lou Trail." None of the various other maps we have examined—both civil and military—are of the slightest value; for it is a fact that an area in Idaho larger than some of our States is less known geographically than some equal areas in Central Africa and within the arctic circle. Mr. Himmelwright's book is the story of the Carlin hunting-party in that region, which acquired such sensational notoriety a year or so ago from the distressing incident of the abandonment of a cook, moribund with uræmia, to save the lives of the rest. This seems to have been justified by the extremity to which the party were reduced, and should not have made a scandal; the real criticism to be passed is, that those young fellows had no business to be in such a place at that season of the year.

'In Cairo and Jerusalem' (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), by Mary T. Carpenter, consists of sketches of scenes in and about these two cities. The author has some ability for graphic description, but her work is marred by carelessness and occasional flippancy. The chapters descriptive of the sheikh's house, the Copts, and the Jewish colony near Jerusalem are the most interesting. A striking proof of the change coming over Palestine is the fact that while thirty years ago there was not a house outside of the walls of Jerusalem, "now a solid flank of hospitals, convents, and dwellings reaches out almost as far as the eye can see." The price of land has risen in some instances twenty-four-fold. The largest proprietors are apparently the Russian monks, who "have acquired almost one-fourth of the city."

The Japan Society in London gives evidence of an active life in having on December 31, 1894, 634 members. The president is the Japanese Minister, the Viscount S. Aoki, and the honorary secretaries have their office at 20 Hanover Square, London, W. In volume second of Transactions and Proceedings in 1892-3 there are two valuable papers. Consul-General N. Okoshi writes upon Japanese proverbs, in which, besides giving a list of several score of these coins of speech, he shows how Japanese children learn them from the alphabet "proverb cards," on each of which is one of these products of "the wisdom of many and the wit of one." The large number of figurative expressions is also interesting, but these reveal the almost total lack of personification characteristic of the Japanese and other languages of Chinese Asia. Mrs. C. M. Salwey, the daughter of Dr. Birch of the British Museum, writes on Japanese fans. By her analyses and descriptions she shows how astonishingly large a place the fan holds in Japanese etiquette and economy, as well as in history and æsthetics. The folding fan is a pure Japanese invention, and, according to the testimony of Chinese historians, was introduced into China from Japan in the fifteenth century, while the flat fan is an evolution from the palmetto-leaf. With annotations by the learned secretaries and a description of the loan exhibition of fans, the paper is richly reinforced. It is not probable, however, that, in the present war with China, the iron-boned fan so much in vogue with the mediæval Japanese commanders is any longer used as a weapon either of offence, defence, or indication.

The Filson Club of Louisville, as number 10 of its publications relating to the history of Kentucky, has issued a sumptuous volume, by Richard Ellsworth Call, on the Life and Writings of Rafinesque. Constantine Samuel Rafinesque, the son of a Frenchman by a German wife, born in Turkey, educated in France and Italy, later a merchant in Sicily, a naturalist, professor of languages, and quack doctor in America, was one of the most eccentric characters in our early scientific annals. His relation to Kentucky arose from his appointment in 1819 to a professorship in the Transylvania University at Lexington. The college was then honored by the presidency of Dr. Horace Holley (whose name is systematically misspelled throughout the volume), and had a distinguished reputation as a centre of learning. Rafinesque was its first professor of natural science and modern languages, and spent seven years in Lexington. He possessed much ill-digested learning, extraordinary enthusiasm for travel, collecting and naming plants and animals; colossal vanity, unusual credulity, and yet a singularly fertile mind. In the earlier part of his life he was an acute and prolific writer, especially on botany and ichthyology. Under the pressure of misfortune his mind gradually gave way, and his later writings are mere literary curiosities. Not without genius, his work is generally wanting in common sense. The chief result for American science left by his labors is a flood of contested, largely unidentifiable, names, over which authors have quarrelled from year to year. Prof. Call's memoir is sympathetic and interesting, and is supplemented by a useful bibliography of Rafinesque's publications, most of which are now very rare.

The first (January) number of the *Astrophysical Journal*, "an international review of spectroscopy and astronomical physics," can scarcely disappoint any of its friends and subscribers, unless there was expectation of elementary and popular papers. Nine articles fill the body of this issue, and their authors' names—Michelson, Barnard, Rowland, Riccò, Pickering, and others—are sufficient guarantee of the worth of the magazine, were any needed. Of course these papers are too technical for notice here, but we may record that Prof. Pickering writes on the discovery of variable stars from their photographic spectra, Mr. Ellery (her Majesty's astronomer at Melbourne) presents several drawings of Mars with the great 4-foot reflector last May and June, Prof. Riccò relates attempts at photographing the solar corona from the summit of Mount Ætna; and every one delighting in fine pictorial presentation will rejoice at seeing the excellent reproductions of Mr. Barnard's splendid photographs of the Milky Way. The departments of minor contributions, notes, and reviews are ample. The young and gifted editor of this new journal, by the way, Prof. George E. Hale of the University of Chicago, has just been awarded the Janssen prize of the French Academy for his original and successful researches in detailed photography of the sun's surface and surroundings.

To the January number of the *Nineteenth Century* Mr. G. A. Aitkin, well known for his interesting discoveries in eighteenth-century literature, contributes an astonishing "find" in regard to Defoe's 'True Relation of the Apparition of one Mrs. Veal,' hitherto supposed to be one of the most veracious lies in literature. In collating the text of the 'True Relation' he found in the British Museum copy of the fourth edition of the pamphlet a manuscript Latin note indicating that the writer had questioned Mrs. Burgrave, whom Defoe represents as seeing the apparition, as to the accuracy of the statements contained in the pamphlet, and had corrected his copy in the few details necessary to bring it into complete accordance with her experience. Further investigation has enabled Mr. Aitkin to verify several of Mrs. Veal's references to individuals, and to draw the moral that Prof. Minto was scarcely justified in calling Defoe "perhaps the greatest liar that ever lived."

A biography of D'Entrecasteaux, the famous French navigator who commanded the expedition in search of La Pérouse and explored the coasts of New Caledonia and Tasmania, by Baron Hulot, occupies nearly the whole of the last *Bulletin de la Société de Géographie*. It is illustrated by several portraits and charts. There are also accounts of a French expedition in 1860 in the western Sudan, and of a more recent exploration of the region lying in the French Congo between Stanley Pool and Loango on the Atlantic coast. The map, which is full of minute details, shows the care and diligence with which the possessions of France in West Africa are being exploited.

A brief review of the work done by the United States Coast Survey in Alaska during the year 1893 is contributed to *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for December, 1894, by Mr. A. Lindenkohl. The other articles are upon the orography of the Spanish Peninsula, the geology of eastern Central Asia, and the dynamics of the atmosphere. This number also contains the usual classified index of the geographical publications of the year. Though far from complete, it is significant as showing, not only by the absolute decline of this literature, but by its change of character and location, that the work of the explorer is nearly finished. The whole number of publications noticed is 762, against 851 for 1893, and 1,170 and 2,092 for the two previous years. Africa has dropped from 542 to 102, and occupies the last place among the continents; Europe heading the list with 192, America following with 138, and Asia 134. As compared with last year, Europe and Africa have lost, America has gained slightly, and Asia considerably. In a supplemental number Dr. Carl Sapper describes the physical geography of Guatemala. The accompanying maps show both the geological features and the distribution of the flora of the country.

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The western section of the Siberian Railway is finished to Omsk, and passenger trains have been running between St. Petersburg and this place, a distance of 2,128 miles, since September, 1894. The time occupied is four and a half days. According to the report of our Consul-General Jonas, "the mountain section, 200 miles in length, has been constructed without tunnels, at a cost of only 87,000 rubles (about $43,500) per mile—that is, about 15,000 rubles less than the original estimate." This railway opens up an area of land suitable for agriculture, and especially wheat, as large in extent as the States of Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin combined. A tide of immigration is already turned thither from European Russia, 18,000 settlers having arrived last summer.

The Geological Survey of Missouri has recently published two colored maps—the Bevier and the Iron Mountain sheets—with pamphlets of explanatory text, the first being prepared chiefly by Mr. C. H. Gordon, the second by Messrs. Winslow, Haworth, and Nason. The maps are on a scale of a mile to an inch from original surveys, and in their published form are very handsome products of cartographic art. The text for the Iron Mountain sheet contains some interesting illustrations, one showing a group of large granite boulders produced by local disintegration; another presenting a general view of the St. François Mountains, a name here advocated for the peaks of the Iron Mountain district, composed of ancient rocks which gained their mountain structure and form even in pre-Silurian time, and which are thus to be distinguished from the surrounding upland of the Ozark plateau of horizontal Silurian and later rocks. The texts dwell especially on the economic products of the two districts, iron ores and coal.

In the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* one remarks as important a contribution of deeds of the Mather family of West Leigh, Lancashire, 1609 to 1632, from Mr. J. P. Rylands of Birkenhead. Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" continue with much fulness the wills of the Saltonstall connection, to which are added a Willoughby assortment, and many others. Edward Palmer of London (died 1624) would fain have set up an Academia Virginiensis et Oxoniensis in Virginia. "The scholars of the said University, for avoiding of idleness at their hours of recreation, shall have two painters, the one for oil-colors and the other for water-colors, which shall be admitted Fellows in the same College. And further my will and mind is that two grinders, the one for oil-colors and the other for water-colors, and also colors, oil and gum waters shall be provided from time to time at the costs and charges of the said College, beseeching God to add a blessing to these my intents."

A notable change has come over the *Photographic Times* (New York: 423 Broome Street), which now calls itself "an illustrated monthly magazine devoted to the interests of artistic and scientific photography." For a long time illustrated, it now makes pictures a leading feature, but the quality of its articles seems at the same time to be undergoing an improvement, and the magazine is much enlarged.

The Providence Public Library has begun publication of a Monthly Bulletin, which, as may be inferred from Mr. Foster's previous ventures, deserves a place on the reading-table of every public library. Here, for instance, in No. 1, are reference lists on Dr. Holmes, on the Korean war, and on Buddhism (apropos of Prof. Rhys Davids's lectures). The library has, we learn, an "invaluable bibliography of municipal government, comprising about 1,000 slips, and as yet unpublished," the work of a woman.

—The revision for the second time, but more thoroughly, of his 'American Commonwealth,' by Mr. Bryce (Macmillan), has been a labor little less arduous than that of the original composition. Besides the ordinary distractions of the political arena, Mr. Bryce has had heavy duties and responsibilities as president of the Board of Trade. He has, let us not weary in repeating, been further handicapped by the necessity of manufacturing his book in two countries separated from each other by a week's time and three thousand miles of space. The enumeration would still be incomplete which did not mention the difficulties inherent in the shifting nature of our own political development. One may see traces of this in the footnotes touching Dr. Parkhurst and the Lexow Committee, and in the footnote *not* written recording the recent extraordinary Republican successes in the South. Even so cool and intelligent an observer as Mr. Bryce must be at a loss how to interpret our latter-day manifestations. Happily the first half of his work looks after itself, with need of slight revision, since it sets forth the framework and practical working of our form of government, State and national. To the second part he has contributed four chapters from his own hand. In one he returns to Tammany, and does Mr. Oakey Hall the justice to say that no share in the Tweed Ring's booty was ever traced to him, while not omitting to notice that Mr. Wingate's "elaborate and unsparing portraits of these four gentlemen" in the *North American Review* "evoked from them no contradictions, and certainly gave rise to no legal proceedings," such as Mr. Hall thought it prudent to launch against Mr. Bryce in England. The chapter on the Home of the Nation is a consideration of physical conformation and climate with reference to the chances of a future division of the bulky republic, and of possible new types of man to be evolved. Mr. Bryce foresees an undivided union and hardly any singularity of type unless on the Pacific coast. His chapters on the South and the negro we discuss in another column. The former contains some striking expressions, as that "It [the South] has suffered, and been regenerated, by a terrible war"; that leadership, after the war, fell "chiefly to those white adventurers whose scanty stock of portable property won for them the name of 'carpetbaggers'"; and the reference to "those amiable traits in the national character which often survive the sterner virtues."

—The last half of Mr. Conway's second volume of the Writings of Thomas Paine (Putnams) is occupied by the 'Rights of Man.' In the first half we meet with that adverse discussion of Virginia's claims to the Western territory which Jefferson had to contend against when he subsequently bespoke Virginia's bounty for Paine. In the controversial letter to the Abbé Raynal occur some interesting Revolutionary annals by an eye-witness. There is also a new document recovered through the French of Condorcet, being Paine's answer to four questions on the legislative and executive powers. Incidentally in this volume many timely observations are to be found. "We seek not," says our author, in his letters on "Peace and the Newfoundland Fisheries," "a fleet to insult the world or range in foreign regions for conquest." And in "Prospects on the Rubicon": "It is an error very frequently committed in the world to mistake disposition for condition. France, with a much better permanent condition for war than England, is in a less disposition to enter into one; and this want of disposition in her is mistaken in England for want of condition." A like mistake was committed by France in the case of Prussia in 1870. Paine, again, was an apostle of copyright, alleging that "in all countries where literature is protected (and it never can flourish where it is not) the works of an author are his legal property." He took the view, which now seems statesmanlike, that it would be wise to admit new States to the Union as soon as formed, but to exclude their representatives from a vote in Congress till after the expiration of seven years. In selecting this period, as in predicting accurately the end of our Revolution, he was perhaps unconsciously influenced by what he called the superstition as to "seven" of his British countrymen.

—Among the many items apropos of Du Maurier's masterpiece, not the least interesting is the closeness with which he has stuck to the facts. One's first impression upon reading how Svengali taught Trilby to sing—how he hypnotized her and commanded her to imitate the sounds he made on his flexible flageolet—was, no doubt, that this, at least, was a flight of poetic license. It seems, however, to be well within the possibilities. A case which in all essentials covers it was reported as long ago as 1850 by James Braid, the first of the successors of Mesmer to approach the hypnotic sleep from the side of science rather than of charlatanism. After speaking of the heightened sense of hearing under mesmerism and of the increase of muscular precision, they make, he says, "feats of phonic imitation" possible which are truly astounding:

> "Many patients will thus repeat accurately what is spoken in *any* language; and they may be also able to sing correctly and simultaneously both words and music of songs in any language, which they had never heard before—*i. e.*, they catch the words as well as music so instantaneously as to accompany the other singer as if both had been previously equally familiar with both words and music. In this manner a patient of mine who, when awake, knew not the grammar of even her own language, and who had very little knowledge of music, was enabled to follow Mlle. Jenny Lind correctly in songs in different languages, giving both words and music *so correctly and so simultaneously with Jenny Lind* that two parties in the room could not for some time imagine that there were two voices, so perfectly did they accord, both in musical tone and vocal pronunciation of Swiss, German, and Italian songs. She was equally successful in accompanying Mlle. Lind in one of her extemporaneous effusions, which was a long and extremely difficult, elaborate chromatic exercise, which the celebrated cantatrice tried by way of taxing the powers of the somnambulist to the utmost. When awake the girl durst not even *attempt* to do anything of the sort; and after all, wonderful as it was, it was *only phonic imitation*, for she did not understand the meaning of a single word of the foreign language which she had uttered so correctly."

This is exactly Trilby's case (only more so), except that there is nothing to indicate in the report that "the patient" remembered Jenny Lind's songs and could reproduce them afterwards; but the formation of a trance-state memory is a sufficiently frequent phenomenon. The quotation is from Braid's 'Observations on Trance,' page 43.

—Nothing more forcibly illustrates the caution with which the mathematical interpretation of certain problems in terrestrial physics

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should be received than the redetermination, with the aid of the formulæ used by Sir William Thomson (Lord Kelvin), which Prof. Perry now furnishes regarding the possible age of the earth. Somewhat more than thirty years ago Prof. Thomson announced, as the result of an ingenious calculation based upon the loss of the internal heat of the globe, a time-limit to our planet of from 20,000,000 to 400,000,000 years, minimum and maximum, with a resolution to 100,000,000 years as probably most nearly representing the actual period. This conclusion, which has been received almost unchallenged up to the present year, is largely at variance with the views held by many of the more advanced geologists, who see in the slow making of rock-masses and the numerous revolutions and changes which the organic life of the globe has passed through, evidences of a far greater antiquity than the physicists of the Thomson school were willing to concede. Prof. Perry, who is himself a pupil of Lord Kelvin, now comes to the assistance of the geologists by stating (*Nature*, January 3), that if we assume, as we properly may, higher conductivity for the internal materials of the earth than we know to belong to the materials of the so-called crust—a very likely condition under the excessive temperature of the interior—then the Thomson limit of time must be very measurably increased; and, indeed, a startling calculation is made to show that "even for a perfectly solid earth an age 1,300 times the age given by Lord Kelvin" is not necessarily incompatible with such facts as are now known to us. In a personal letter addressed to Prof. Perry, and bearing date of December 13, Lord Kelvin admits the force of Prof. Perry's arguments, and, with a true scientific submission, says: "I thought my range from 20,000,000 to 400,000,000 was probably wide enough, but it is quite possible that I should have put the superior limit a good deal higher—perhaps 4,000 instead of 400."

—Meteorologists seem to be unanimous as to the necessity for investigation at high altitudes in free air—that is, as distinct from mountain stations. These last do not meet every requirement, because they are, after all, only points on the earth's surface, and therefore present different phenomena from those at great elevations removed entirely from the earth. Prof. Harrington, in a recent number of *Aeronautics*, recommends systematic exploration of the upper air by kites and by balloons, both with and without aeronauts. Pilot balloons carrying self-registering instruments are always of use; one such, in March, 1893, reaching a height of ten miles. But he considers that the best exploration of free air may be accomplished by a meteorologist himself making the ascent twice a day in a balloon with the instruments, taking a constant series of notes, reaching a height each time of about 20,000 feet, and persevering in all weathers and seasons. This more than any other method would add to that accurate meteorological knowledge which alone can be depended upon for forecasting the weather. Probably the first to attempt high-altitude observations by kites was Mr. E. Douglass Archibald of England, who sent up anemometers and obtained records of wind-velocity at a height of 2,000 feet. Later Mr. William A. Eddy of New Jersey perfected a kite which flies very steadily. A number of them strung "tandem" have reached altitudes exceeding a mile, with important instruments attached. Among other facts obtained with reference to aerial eddies was the rather interesting evidence that marked ascending air-currents prevail beneath cumulus clouds. Experiments made by M. Hermite of Paris, in 1892, with a balloon carrying automatic instruments, resulted in the balloon's reaching a height of 52,500 feet, or about ten miles. While the French experiments give many valuable results, their accuracy is lessened because the increased direct radiation of the sun was disregarded. But Dr. Assmann of Berlin has experimented for over two years in perfecting self-registering instruments which will work undisturbed at high altitudes. His accounts, in the *Zeitschrift für Luftschifffahrt*, of the voyages made by his balloon *Cirrus* carrying these instruments, is of great interest. The first attempt was in May, 1894, in the presence of the German Emperor. In July a second ascent was made, the balloon reaching this time a height of 53,560 feet, the greatest yet attained by anything made by man. All these attempts are treated at some length in the last numbers of the *American Meteorological Journal*.

—To explore the Korean language and literature will be the task of American missionaries and scholars for some years to come. Besides the monthly *Korean Repository*, already announced as projected at Séoul, we are in receipt of a valuable monograph of 250 pages on 'Korean Grammatical Forms,' by James S. Gale (the title of "Reverend," either whole or abbreviated, seems to be dropping off rapidly in the mission fields as at home). On a large page are given the written forms of actual examples of Korean speech taken from the lips of natives in various parts of the kingdom. The sentences are printed in *en mun* (native alphabetic characters) and in English translation with Roman letters. A valuable feature is a pair of parallel vertical columns on the left, wherein are shown and contrasted the variations between *en-mun* print, or book-form, and the actual vernacular. As the Korean alphabet is used almost wholly for the expression in translation of Chinese books, the *en-mun* standard forms do not give *all* the colloquial endings. The novels and children's tales are a little more copious in this respect. The student who wishes comfort and economy of eyesight is not likely to attack a native edition while this luxury of white paper and good ink, clear type and fair margins, is before him. One is freshly impressed, in examining this scholarly work, with the likeness in structure of the Korean language to the Japanese, the amazing wealth of conjunctions and honorifics, and the notable variations between the spoken and written forms. The impact of Western ideas will doubtless, as in Japan (where nothing short of the reconstruction of Japanese rhetoric is proceeding), compel the shortening of sentences, and economy in the use of honorifics and conjunctions. The book is printed at the Trilingual Press, Séoul, and seems remarkably free from misprints.

SIR JOHN MACDONALD'S MEMOIRS.

Memoirs of the Rt. Hon. Sir John Alexander Macdonald, G.C.B., First Prime Minister of the Dominion of Canada. By Joseph Pope. 2 vols., 8vo. London: Edward Arnold; Ottawa: J. Durie & Son. 1894.

THE political admirers of the astute Canadian Premier who died at Ottawa in June, 1891, will find much in Mr. Pope's memoirs on which to felicitate themselves and the Tory chieftain's enthusiastic following. Mr. Pope, it must be said, has done well for his subject, having, to be sure, as Sir John Macdonald's private secretary for a number of years and his accredited biographer, had unusual advantages, including access to state documents and official as well as private correspondence, extending over half a century of Canadian political life. The subject of these memoirs, on the other hand, is fortunate in having as the annalist of his times not only a well-informed writer and loyal friend, but one who had known the Dominion Premier only in later life, when he had cast off a good deal of the "old Adam" in him, and attained to the hard-won honors and dignity, the awards of a long, active, and, on the whole, useful career. We note this at the outset, since it accounts for the laudatory strain, which, quite pardonably, runs through the memoirs, and for the fervor of the annalist who treats of the history, not quite so pardonably, from the point of view of the book's decorated and successful hero. Mr. Pope is, of course, right in being loyal to his late chief, and, in the literature of many present-day political memoirs, he can cite innumerable examples of writing history through the spectacles of him who has made it. We nevertheless regret, in the present case, that forty years or so of stormy Canadian history should not have been written with more judicial impartiality and less under the influence of close contact with the red ribbon of the Bath. Mr. Pope's work, however, must be taken for what it is worth, and that is not little, bearing in mind, as one reads it, that it is idle to look in personal memoirs or their equivalent—the life-record of an active participator in contemporary events—for the neutrality of the historian. The frank partisanship of the volumes (especially that of the first one) has, on the other hand, this value, coupled with the fact that the narrative is authoritative, that it presents the Tory as well as the individual case in the long and eventful history with which the work deals; and this must be of importance to the writer of any independent survey of Sir John Macdonald's era who may hereafter appear.

The interest of the biography to readers on this side the boundary line is obviously not great, except as it manifests the policy of isolation and unfriendliness which marks the attitude of the Tory party in Canada in its relations with the United States. We get an instance of this policy not only in the ultra-British tone of Ottawa politics, but more markedly in the manner and bearing of Sir John Macdonald towards our commissioners at the time of the Washington Treaty. The biographer, in dealing with the treaty and the Ottawa Premier's connection with it, as one of the imperial commissioners specially charged with Canadian interests, lets us see how hard a bargain Sir John desired to make, and how much he antagonized his British fellow-representatives in pressing Canadian claims upon the Commission, in the matter of the fisheries and the coasting trade. But for the friendliness of Lord de Grey and his English colleagues, and their desire, jointly with our own representatives, to bring the conference to a satisfactory issue, the negotiations, we see, came perilously near overthrow. Sir John Macdonald's letters to his Canadian colleagues on the negotiations will be found curious reading to our statesmen and people, while they show how aggressive was the Canadian commissioner's temper, and how insistently he fought for his own hand, in spite of the advantage which Canada was to gain in submitting the fisheries clauses of the treaty to separate appraisement and compensation by the United States. Not less

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curious reading will these letters be to British diplomatists, with the frank avowal of their author's artfulness in setting the British Colonial Office against the Foreign Office, in his efforts to obtain support for his views at the conference.

The interest Canadians must have in these Memoirs admits of little doubt, though Dominion Liberals will, of course, have no sympathy with the biographer's Tory sentiments or with the party tinge given to the political history. Especially obnoxious, we imagine, will be the picture drawn by Mr. Pope of the Hon. George Brown, long the head and front of the Reform party in Canada, and for fully thirty years the political adversary of the Canadian Premier. Canadian methods of political warfare are doubtless not heavenly, and Mr. Brown was not only a formidable, but an irritating as well as ambitious opponent. Yet one can hardly deny him the merit, which his party shares, of fighting valiantly for reforms which the Tories continuously and stubbornly resisted, and that during long years of bitter political strife, unsolaced by either the honors or the emoluments of office. Throughout the first volume Mr. Brown is the biographer's *bête noire*; and, if we except the brief interval of cessation from political strife which heralded confederation, unconcealed is the animus with which he writes of him. Only during the period of the Coalition Government of 1864 are the lights softened on the harsh portrait of the great Liberal chief, while everywhere else in the book his memory is held up to ridicule, if not to execration. This, no doubt, in the biographer's view, is only Mr. Brown's desert for the life-long hostility of a rancorous political opponent towards the hero of his pen. This, also, we suppose, is his due for persistently and fanatically attacking Mr. Pope's coreligionists, the Roman Catholics of Quebec, in his personal organ, the Toronto *Globe*, and for flinging truceless defiance in that journal and on the stump at Torydom and all its works. The picture, nevertheless, we repeat, is a harsh one—harsher, indeed, than Sir John Macdonald, much as he disliked Mr. Brown, would have himself written, had he lived to review with his own pen the political contests that have passed into history, with the justification which time has placed upon the clamor as well as the accomplished work of reform.

The era immediately succeeding the Rebellion was the turning-point in the political history of the Canadas. It is the era in which reform was to see its work crowned in the overthrow of the oligarchical "Family Compact," in the application of the elective principle to the irresponsible legislative council, and the full attainment of responsible government. This is the period at which Sir John Macdonald entered political life, and the reader who knows anything of Canada's political past will naturally turn to it as a test of the writer's ability intelligently to deal with it. Need we say that its effective treatment should call into play the active sympathies of not only a well-informed but a strictly dispassionate writer, one who can speak for Liberalism as well as for Toryism, with a strong leaning just at this juncture towards the former rather than the latter? Unhappily, just here Mr. Pope disappoints his readers, for the history of the time, where it is not merely skimmed over, is made to glorify the subject of these memoirs and to cast a sneer at political principle when put forward by Liberals as a rule of action. Of grave moment were the questions that agitated the country at this period. They included such topics as the demand for responsible government, representation by population, secularization of the clergy reserves, abolition of seigniorial tenure, and compensation for rebellion losses. These were followed, a little later, by the agitation over the seat of government, which brought with it the episode of George Brown's two-day administration, and its Tory pendant, the "Double Shuffle," a tricky evasion of the constitutional rule which requires ministers, on taking or resuming office, to go to their constituencies for reëlection. Mr. Pope's treatment of these varied questions is, of course, in harmony with the attitude towards them of his late chief—an attitude which may be summarized by the writer's unqualified denunciation of Lord Elgin, and his extravagant praise of Sir Charles Metcalfe and Sir Francis Bond Head. The biographer's political bias is specially apparent, not only in his dislike to Lord Elgin, but in his withholding from that Governor the commendation which is his due for negotiating a reciprocity treaty between Canada and the United States, at a time when the outlook in the colony was particularly gloomy, and when even prominent Conservatives had but lately signed a manifesto in favor of annexation. Referring to this able Queen's representative, it is not a little curious now to recall the fact that it was Mr. Gladstone, then a Conservative, who in the English Commons attacked the Rebellion Losses Bill (a bill, it was said, for indemnifying rebels) assented to by Lord Elgin; and Lord John Russell, a Liberal, who defended the measure, and approved of the Governor-General's course in following the counsels of his Canadian constitutional advisers.

With more satisfaction do we pass to the chapters on the Confederation of the British American Provinces, in 1867, and to agreement with Mr. Pope in lauding Sir John Macdonald for the statesmanship manifested in this his crowning work. The task was herculean, as the aspiration was commendable, to knit together, under one federal government, the far-scattered peoples and sections of what now forms the Canadian Dominion; and Sir John Macdonald fully merits the chief credit in founding the new nation and in putting it on its feet. But the accomplishment of this great task was possible only through the coalition of parties, in 1864, and through the self-sacrificing aid of the Hon. Mr. Brown and his friends, for which Mr. Pope has, for once, the grace to be thankful. While Canada rightfully plumes herself upon the high status to which Sir John Macdonald, through this measure, was instrumental in advancing her (though, in passing, it may be said that he did not get his will in creating a "kingdom," rather than a dominion, to the north of us), it must not be forgotten that the new era owes as much to the deadlock of parties as it owes to the labor of any one individual politician. Indeed, so desperate, politically, was the situation that confederation was not submitted for the consent of the people, and in one province at least had to be forced upon it by arts which it would be a farce to call moral. To this day even, the province we refer to has to be maintained in the union by subventions, familiarly known as "better terms," and by vast expenditures of money upon so-called public works, to the serious augmentation of the Dominion debt. This, however, is the seamy side of the fabric which Canadian statesmen, or their friends for them, have bandied words with each other for the credit of weaving. Mr. Pope, though in this matter he does justice to Mr. Brown for the timely assistance he rendered his fellow nation-builder, gives more credit to Sir Alexander Galt than to any other member, besides Sir John, of the coalition Government who took part in carrying the measure. But we need not take issue with Mr. Pope in this matter. The father of Confederation, as Mr. Goldwin Smith once aptly said, was "Deadlock," and neither lofty nor patriotic were the political morals that brought about legislative deadlock in the shifting pre-Confederation administrations of the colony.

The founding of the Dominion lifted Canadian politics to a higher plane, and had a steadying and elevating effect upon Sir John Macdonald himself, assisted happily at this time by the restraining influences of his second wife, a lady of strong character and high social ambitions. The new era was full of opportunities for the exercise of Sir John's vast resources as a politician, his great skill in managing men, and his intimate knowledge of the needs of the country. There was the trouble first to be got over, however, in conciliating Nova Scotia, the province by the sea, which, led by its able son, the Hon. Joseph Howe, was averse to union with the old Canadas; and there were also difficulties in the far West, in obtaining possession of the surrendered domain of the Hudson Bay Company, and in attaching the crown colony on the Pacific to the Dominion. But the fates were propitious; and where they were menacing or churlish, political manœuvring, at which Sir John Macdonald was an adept, managed to smooth the path, though it was soon to bring about disaster in an unexpected quarter, in connection with the railway policy to which Confederation committed the central Government. In the affair of the Pacific Railway scandal, Mr. Pope contents himself, in the main, with setting before the reader Sir John Macdonald's own defence of himself and his incriminated Government. This takes the form of a long and exculpatory letter from the Premier to Lord Dufferin, then Governor-General, in which the First Minister rather unchivalrously shelters himself behind his dead colleague, Sir George Cartier, and, in the absence of a Carlton Club in the colony, pleads the necessity of "meeting fire with fire" in election campaigns, if he was to succeed in maintaining Conservative rule in the country. The result, as is well known, was the overthrow of Sir John Macdonald's Administration and the exclusion of the Conservatives from office for a period of five years—until, in fact, the formulation of the "National Policy" (protection for native manufactures) restored the party and its pardoned head to power. This occurred in 1878, when these memoirs practically close, if we except a chapter on Sir John's personal views on Imperial Federation and Irish Home Rule, and one narrating the facts concerning his last illness and death.

The story told in these Memoirs is well put together, and, allowing for its source, is by no means lacking in political interest. We could have wished that the writer had been more neutral and less swayed by a desire to "blacklist" his late chief's political opponents, with some even of his personal friends, and at least two of his quondam colleagues who had, for one reason or another, become obnoxious to him. On the other hand, we could have wished for more of a personal portraiture, exhibiting Sir John Macdonald as he was known to almost every Canadian, in the weakness as well as the strength of his individuality—serious in the council-room, witty in the legislative chamber, and human everywhere. Aside from the charm and *bonhomie*

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of the man, it would of course not be difficult to solve the secret of his almost unvarying success, unless one's eyes were shut to, or the mind ignorant of, the methods of politicians in playing in our modern age the party game. To be just, however, there were more and higher things in Sir John Macdonald than the questionable gifts of the dexterous party leader and cajoler of his fellows. The enduring factors of his fame, besides administrative ability of a high order and hearty sympathy with the national aspirations, include personal honesty and a life of toil in the disinterested service of his country.

NINE NOVELS.

The Greater Glory. By Maarten Maartens. D. Appleton & Co.

A Change of Air. By Anthony Hope. Henry Holt & Co.

The Indiscretion of the Duchess. By Anthony Hope. Henry Holt & Co.

The God in the Car. By Anthony Hope. Appletons.

The Matchmaker. By L. B. Walford. Longmans, Green & Co.

Love in Idleness. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

My Lady Rotha. By Stanley J. Weyman. Longmans.

Eyes Like the Sea. By Maurus Jokai. Translated from the Hungarian by R. Nisbet Bain. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Timar's Two Worlds. By Maurus Jokai. Authorized translation by Mrs. Hegan Kennard. Appletons.

MR. MAARTENS is an exceptionally clever writer, a sayer of sayings, an observer of manners, a dissecter of morals, a moralizer upon life, a cynical humorist, a humorous cynic, a poet, a visionary, and a passionate enthusiast for freedom so far as it concerns the poorer half of humanity. Each of his novels breathes more or less of all these traits. His latest, 'The Greater Glory,' runs riot in them all, but particularly in that tense "scorn of kings" and passion for social revolution which have made so many a novel dull. To scourge the sins of Holland by merciless delineation of its morals and customs is one thing; to confront the reader of a novel with rhapsodies most like the pamphlets of socialism is another. In short, tensity is the sin of style into which this very able writer is falling. The interest of his book demands not less enthusiasm, but a lighter touch. We confess to a distinct weariness of the child of luxury who takes an incognito in the slums and writes poems for *The Cry of the People.* Nor do we find a convincing differentiation between the displaced Baron and the usurping Count. For all the details crowded upon them, they do not stand out in vivid relief from each other or from any one else. The author's burning-glass light after all does not illuminate. It is too glaring. The pictures of Dutch society, the jealousies between the "Mevrouws" and the "Juffrouws," "a distinction to be fathomed only by a Dutchwoman," the passing flashes thrown upon life's miseries and life's consolations, are in Mr. Maartens's wittiest and keenest mode; the disappointment lies in the prolixity of the story (at bottom a passable one), and in the telling of it with that mixture of irony and indirection which is at once searing and bewildering. But the world cannot afford not to hope for more writing from the pen that says: "The Dutch, great in painting, are dead to poetry. Even in painting, imagination is a sin. It was by imagination that our common mother fell. Had she been content to perceive that an apple is an apple, she might have been in Paradise at this hour as many a substantial Dutch burgher-mother is."

Anthony Hope's 'Change of Air' has the fresh sprightliness of all his works: the light and lively handling, the skill in keeping the little craft of story jauntily afloat, and the half-stagy dénouement, which frequently in Mr. Hope's stories holds a side glance towards dramatization. The sub-hero, Philip, is the real interest of the book in characterization—a sort of George Warrington figure, on whom is saddled the wisest and best of the book. The author loves him and has made him delightful. The hero, the genius, is more interesting to the women and men who surround him than the reader can well understand, but the bubbub his vagaries create in a country town is real enough, even to the inanities they give rise to. A good deal of padding has been done to supply the *dramatis personæ*, and rather shapeless padding some of it is; but on it, as on a background of not uncomfortable cushions, one may pass an hour of temperate amusement.

'The Indiscretion of the Duchess' returns to the vein of 'The Prisoner of Zenda,' but in no way repeats that story. Mr. Hope's devices in plot-making are distinctly his own. The most surprising inventions flow from his brain in novel combinations. Nineteenth-century adventures though they are, they are told with an old time air of romance that gives them the fascination of an earlier day; an air of good faith, almost of religious chivalry, gives reality to their extravagance. They come near to being pious. Moreover, what is lacking in many excellently told stories is the very sauce of the feast here, namely, a cleverness in epigram which marks Mr. Hope as a wit if he were not a romancer. Many thrilling tales have been written without containing such shrewd observations as these: "Discretion has two meanings—whereof the one is 'Do it not,' and the other 'Tell it not.'" "We do not always wish and hope for the same thing."

In 'The God in the Car' Mr. Hope strikes a note differing from any other in his lengthening scale—a note of less clarity and beauty than the others, but not without force. A man who rides, a Juggernaut, over all that lies between him and his ambition is a good subject for a story. To make the story good, however, there should be proof, not statement only, of Juggernaut's compelling power. This Juggernaut, who subdues men, women, and children to his will, and steps on them to rise, is such an intolerable boor and bore that his influence is hard to believe in. It is easier to side with the few who snub him than with the ninety and nine who let him ride over them. One must, therefore, admire the plan rather than the execution of this story, and be grateful for a liberal meed of brilliant sayings in Mr. Hope's most shining style—enough (sinister thought!) to make a calendar withal.

If there is the "patter" song, there is also the patter novel, and Mrs. Walford is its prophet, if not creator. 'The Matchmaker' is a very fair specimen of the school. It goes on and on amiably, observantly, humorously. The average mood of the average man and the average woman is reproduced with a skill which speaks well for the author's clear-sightedness and deftness of pen. To lend shadow to the monotone of every-day life, the dramatic and even the tragic are here and there invoked with not too great shock to the unities. It is well-trained, expurgated tragedy, on the whole, suitable for family use, and we fancy in Mrs. Walford's mind a preference for the domestic scenes to the glare of melodrama. She describes with positive unction, and as if from sheer exuberance of the humdrum, the village characters and their tiny concerns, but about her villains hang traces of bored conscientiousness. The fluttering anxieties of two spinsters about "the doings at the castle" fill page upon page; the childish banalities of the ladies of the castle fill pages more, so fatally well done as to carry their tiresome quality along with them, to some extent. The heroine who flashes like wildfire in and out, among the placidities of her fossilized kinsfolk in their Scotch island, is a merry, natural creature, young, piquant, meddlesome. The poor thwarted girl whose unhappy love story makes the tragedy of the book is possible enough for the purposes of a story, and is drawn with curious alternations of elaboration and vagueness. And, after all else is said, there remains enough old-fashioned love-making to yield the old-fashioned reader a modicum of calm enjoyment.

'Love in Idleness' is a charming name for a story. Bar Harbor is a charming place. Macmillan & Co. have published Mr. Crawford's story in noble print, on regal paper, with copious beautiful reproductions from photographs and less beautiful ones from drawings. The cover is stamped with a pretty gold network of flowers and leaves, a heart, and Mr. Crawford's autograph. There is some bright talk between the hero and the Professor on the boat which is taking them and the reader to Mt. Desert, but the fencing between the colorless hero and the repellent heroine is so near to slugging that one wishes there were more idleness and less love; decidedly Miss Fanny Trehearne should be disqualified by the umpire from playing. But ramble as he will from his highest standards, Mr. Crawford never fails to say many things that no one else says quite as well.

'My Lady Rotha' has the excellences of Mr. Weyman's other stories—their special qualities of adventure and chivalry woven into a whole whose interest is heightened by the glimpses into history which they furnish, adequately for the story-teller's purpose, indeed, yet ostensibly rather than really. There is a strange likeness in the local colors used to depict Holland in the time of Bloody Mary, Paris in Richelieu's day, and Germany during the Thirty Years' War; but it is always a coloring removed enough from the contemporaneous to make the reader feel that he is moving in a stirring past, and to soothe his mind with a gentle complacency at the thought that in these attractive tales he is reading history. We trust that Mr. Weyman will not seek to heighten the excitement of his stories by piling Ossa on Pelion in the matter of military atrocities, but we perceive a slight crescendo in that direction, to be deplored if his works are to maintain their reputation as books in every way delightful for the young reader as well as the old.

"Fiction is ceasing to be a branch of art, and fast becoming, instead, a branch of science," says the translator of 'Eyes like the Sea.' By way of antidote he introduces to us one of Jokai's hundred and fifty novels, as a representative specimen of Hungarian literature, and as one that supplies in its features of incident, invention, and humor a wholesome contrast with other Continental novels of psychology, physiology, and pessimism. Maurus Jo-

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kai, says the translator, may be said to have created the modern Hungarian novel; and he adds that to Jokai, a veteran, is largely due the fact that in a degenerating state of fiction elsewhere in Europe the Hungarian novel remains healthy and humorous. For ourselves, we confess that the "cheery" quality of Jokai's work, so insisted on by his translator, does not forcibly stand out. We should rather call his humor the mother tincture of cynicism. It is not bitter, it is even jolly, but with a jollity that sits upon a profound melancholy like bubbles on a whirlpool. "This is a world of illusion," he seems to say; "the only way to endure it is to joke"—an attitude less of cheer than of resigned pessimism. The interest of his book lies first in the autobiographic portions, which tell of Jokai's own experiences as author, and above all as sharer in the revolution of '48, with a stirring and affecting picture of those ever-moving days. Next, and chief feature of the work as a novel, is the clever portrait of Bessy, with eyes like the sea and career as varied as her eyes. She is a masterpiece of characterization. At each point where her adventures threaten to make her intolerable, her dazzling audacity, pluck, resource, and even a sort of misguided loyalty, compel the reader's admiration. The author has remembered always to leave a drop of humanity at its most courageous in his analysis of this eccentric creature, which saves her from being the conventional adventuress, and keeps the world her kin, however disreputable she may be. Finally, there is a plenitude of wit and epigram to be found in the Hungarian novelist, and a full appreciation of the kindlinesses of life, though no great belief in their abundance.

'Timar's Two Worlds,' by the same author, is a larger work, more romantic in its construction and more powerful in its situations; a more fully fledged novel, in fact. The story is laid on original lines and in scenes unhackneyed by description. The Danube at its fiercest, and a certain "ownerless island" in the Danube, which blossoms like the rose with idyllic harvest, form the background to a tale of rare and even terrible interest. The history of the downward trend of the man who permits himself the first false step, until he determines to bear no longer a life grown unbearable, is full of significance as a lesson to the sinner, while the miraculous rescue and the withdrawal of the hero to a life of pastoral love, and the wholly uneven distribution of punishments and rewards among the innocent and the guilty, make an equally forcible appeal to the artist and to the pessimist for whom so much modern novel-writing is done. From any point of view this is a striking, even a seizing book, and it alone would mark Jokai as a rare writer about whose work hang the indescribable atmosphere of genius, the fecundity of invention, the exuberance of phrase, the poetic instinct for the meanings of things material and spiritual, which distinguish those interpreters of life who stand as kings among their fellows.

American Book-Plates. A Guide to their Study, with examples. By Charles Dexter Allen. With a Bibliography by Eben Newell Hewins. Illustrated with many reproductions of rare and interesting book-plates. Macmillan & Co. 1894. Small 8vo, pp. 437.

For the last two centuries book-collectors have had a pleasant fancy of marking their ownership of books by pasting therein little labels, generally inscribed with their names. As forgeries are comparatively unknown, and as there is a very general desire to possess relics associated with the personal surroundings of great men, it is not surprising that these evidences of ownership add greatly to the value of the volumes so enriched. An autograph or a marginal note is more precious, but the book-plate seems to bring the past into immediate contact with us.

But, alas, this is the age of fads and clubs. Not content with a rational enjoyment in the possession of the books once owned by our heroes, the collector arises to collect indiscriminately, to classify whimsically, to reproduce, to exchange, and to found a new cult. The book-plate, extracted from its proper home, is placed in an album, and its worship is as absurd and futile as that of a collector of the shoe-buckles of the belles of the court of Louis the Great.

Of this phase we will speak later. Of course, there is one view in which a collection may be valuable. As these book-plates are really small engravings, they form a subdivision of the history of art. Such work has often employed able gravers, and some few plates are worthy of attention as works of art. Occasionally, also, the design is worth notice for its literary merit or attractive for its quaintness. But inasmuch as the primary object of the book-plate is to mark possession, and as books were peculiarly the property of the rich, it would be expected that the majority of book-plates belonged to persons now forgotten by posterity, and that the designs were mostly armorial or heraldic.

Mr. Allen's book on American book-plates is one which owes its chief importance to the existence of the new processes of cheap reproduction. To put it plainly, the main interest lies in the pictures with which it is liberally adorned, and which, like all such reproductions, give the reader a good general idea of the originals, at the sacrifice of all the finer points of the artist's work. Mr. Allen has evidently collected material assiduously, though he does not show any capacity for arranging it, nor for writing a clear explanation of the value of the examples. He lacks entirely the historical instinct which would place his collections in a proper sequence. Certainly he should have treated of the engravers in their chronological succession, instead of an alphabetical one. In regard to them his knowledge seems to be slight, and his biographies are merely condensed from former authorities, without acknowledgment.

At the very beginning of his introduction, Mr. Allen makes the following remarkable confession:

"The larger part of our early plates are armorial in character; and while heraldry forms so prominent and important a feature, it is left practically untouched in the present volume. The number interested in the science is small, *the authorities on coats-of-arms and on blazoning differ*, and the present writer had not the time to make the thorough investigation necessary to a satisfactory treatment of this interesting branch."

Now there is no other science more simple and exact than that of heraldry and blazon. It is easily learned, and forms an international shorthand. It is peculiarly adapted to the construction of book-plates, and its use thereon has been of the greatest service to the kindred pursuit of genealogy. By omitting this large and interesting branch of the subject, Mr. Allen has greatly diminished the value of his book. We also regret the affectation of rules and styles, which would have been discerned to be unnecessary had an historical arrangement by artists been adopted; and generally the pomp and ceremony attendant on the publication of what is merely a scrap-book.

To pass to the consideration of the material herein found is a more grateful task. The reproductions of the book-plates of Washington, Franklin, Adams, Webster, Isaiah Thomas, and Oliver Wendell Holmes appeal to our sympathies. We seem nearer to the original owners when we see the evidences of their taste in these decorations. The quaint fancies shown in the larger examples from colleges and libraries are doubly interesting in the history of colonial art. So, again, the designs originating within the last twenty years among the present generation of book-collectors and book-lovers are often curious, if not conspicuous for good taste. The list of known book-plates, signed by the engraver, will be of service in many ways, especially when supplemented by dates. The descriptions, at least of the reproduced plates, seem to be unnecessary, while the long list of mottoes is the merest padding.

We regret that we cannot bestow higher praise upon a book which has very considerable merit; but in the interest of good literary work it seems necessary to protest against all attempts to make bulk take the place of careful and judicious research.

Six Dialogues of Lucian. Translated into English, with an introduction, by Sidney T. Irwin, M.A. London: Methuen & Co. 1894.

There are certain authors so ill-adapted for solitary study that the reader must for ever be looking up from his book for a friend to share his ecstasy. The student of Lucian seems to fall into this habit until there is nothing for him but to make a translation that shall give his non-classical friends the clue to his delight. Mr. Irwin has made the latest English contribution to this literature of love, and prefaced it by a pleasantly written introduction containing the usual apology, in the spirit of a man exhibiting his lady-love's portrait, and anxiously explaining that, lovely as it is, it does not do her justice. Although the present example is accurate and more vivacious than the average translation of a witty author, it still lays bare the fact, veiled to a certain extent for scholars by the inevitable charm of the original language, that Lucian was capable now and then of writing as dully as another.

Mr. Irwin makes no pretence of contributing to scholarship in the present book, and no one will quarrel with him for treating his Lucian as nearly as possible like a modern author. But Arnold and Pater have accustomed the reader of English classical essays to feel the iron of science under the velvet of style, and to enjoy himself in security. Mr. Irwin glides over some difficult questions with a confidence that makes one doubt his realization of the *ignes suppositos*, and does not seem to have given great heed to modern Lucianic authorities, although he does admit an appeal from Müller and Donaldson. Again, the note on Lucian's abstention from allusion to Rome and Roman writers would not have been written by a student of general Greek literature in the second Christian century, for such a student knows that the Empire and all its works were avoided by the Sophists with a delicacy equal to that of Mr. Wegg. But the book is useful as setting before the public some of the less read of Lucian's works, and it is cheering as a

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token of the growing interest in this great writer among English-speaking scholars. Lucian's temperament is one with which the German genius is particularly unfit to deal. It blunders by taking him seriously—not when he jokes, for his humor is generally writ too large for misconception—but when he is serious. Mr. Irwin is right in treating the Dialogues of the Gods as so much pure literature, with no missionary motive behind them.

But in delivering us from the rehabilitated Lucian of the Germans, English scholars have foisted on us another delusion. Pater, whose delightful use of a fragment of the 'Hermotimus' in 'Marius' is largely responsible for Lucian's vogue, imposed him on the popular mind as a gentleman. The 'Hermotimus' had to be considerably assisted in bearing out this view, but, when all was done, Lucian emerged from Pater's refinery with the hall-mark of an Oxford man. Mr. Irwin has adopted this pleasing fancy, though with misgivings. It is an ungracious task to remind his readers that Lucian's ugly method of personal abuse, his vanity and his callousness, do not need the help of his indecency to bar him out from the little band of ancient gentlemen that stand beside Plato and Pliny the Younger.

Occult Japan. By Percival Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

THIS work describes a distinct "find" by its brilliant author during a recent sojourn in Japan, viz., of an elaborate system of possession-trance practised by one of the sects of Shinto, the ethnic faith of Japan. Introductory or sequent to this main theme are accounts of Shinto miracles, pilgrimages, "gohei," and the Ise shrines. Last comes an analysis of the possession-trance and its congeners, hypnotic-trance and dreams, from the standpoint of monism and in the light of the most recent psychologic research. It appears that the peculiar impersonality of the Japanese race, previously treated by Mr. Lowell in his 'Soul of the Far East,' renders it specially capable of that discarding of all positive thought-content which forms the *sine qua non* of trance, whether possessory or hypnotic. While the latter is unknown in Japan, the former is surprisingly common, at any rate around Tokyo. In it the control is not, as in Western spiritualism, the spirit of a deceased person, but one of the myriad Shinto deities, who consents to answer through a medium—*nakaza*—the questions of an official interrogator—*maeza*—concerning "anything a man may want to know, from the nature of the gods themselves to the weather of the coming month." Much care was rightly bestowed upon tracing this curious cult to its real source, the primitive Shinto faith as distinguished from the imported Buddhism, and thus a distinct contribution has been made to what is at last receiving deserved attention, the ethnic faith of Japan.

The treatise stands a model of keen observation, deep insight, and scientific analysis, while over all this rigidly scientific material and method is thrown the charm of a style that implies the blending of scientist and poet. The abounding satire, epigram, alliteration, and metaphor would as much repay a perusal with purpose of entertainment, as its soberer merits would for instruction in an absolutely new field.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Winter's Tale. King John. 2 vols. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Burgwyn, C. P. E. The Lost Diamond: A Play. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & Co. 15 cents.
Charles, R. H. The Ethiopic Version of the Hebrew Book of Jubilees. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Davidson, John. Ballads and Songs. London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1 50.
Edgren, Prof. A. H. Shakuntala; or, The Recovered Ring. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Flint, Prof. Robert. Socialism. London: Isbister & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.25.
Gregorovius, Ferdinand. History of the City of Rome in the Middle Ages. 2 vols. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel. The Old Manse and a Few Mosses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Jenkins, T. A. L'Espurgatoire Seint Patriz of Marie de France. Philadelphia: A. J. Ferris. 90 cents.
Lagarde, Paul de. Erinnerungen aus seinem Leben. Zusammengestellt von Anna de Lagarde. Göttingen: Lüder Horstmann.
Muzzarelli, Prof. Antoine. The Academic French Course. American Book Co. $1.
Nesmith, J. E. Philoctetes, and Other Poems and Sonnets. Cambridge, Mass.: Riverside Press.
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